THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1800.

ART. I. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. IV.* 4to. pp. 480. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies, London; Dickson, and Balfour, Edinburgh. 1798.

To pay due honour to the illustrious dead, by preserving the remembrance and thus prolonging the influence of great virtues and singular talents, is a duty which we ought gladly to impose on ourselves. It is a duty, too, of which the world thankfully acknowleges the performance, by displaying a solicitude for all accounts relative to good and wise men, which is at the same time a just tribute paid to departed excellence. This eagerness is in course proportional to the reputation of those whose history is related. It is no idle curiosity which incites us to inspect the hours of relaxation, and of friendly converse, of one whose writings taught mankind to think, to judge, and to act; and which induces us to listen to what he said wisely or wittily, to "his sentences of observation and his sallies of raillery." It is no weak motive which makes us desirous of knowing whether he, who demonstrated how the universe is poised and regulated, was on other subjects superior to the rest of mankind; and whether he settled the nature of moral duty with peculiar nicety of discernment and exactness of judgment,—or could, when occasion demanded, persuade to virtue, exalt affection, and exhilarate despondency.

In all large societies, there is a considerable portion of men who are wise and virtuous to a certain extent; only possessing talents somewhat above mediocrity, discharging their ordinary duties with propriety, cautiously prudent rather than zealously benevolent, never inordinately depraved nor splendidly good. Of such persons, the opinions are rather not to be controverted than to be admired; their observations are generally made on the surface of things; their minds, not enterprizing nor excursive, are confined to the beaten and common tracts of human knowlege; and if, in their writings, truth receives a

new form and some new embellishments, she cannot boast of any great augmentation of her substance and riches.

Men of this description are esteemed, and deservedly; their friends and acquaintance cherish their memory: but their contemporaries and posterity, while regarding their lives with approbation, must view their history with an alloy of indifference; it contains little that is extraordinary, interesting, or brilliant; and, if variegated, only by trivial events, and by the common griefs and pleasures which daily happen to thousands.

When is biography interesting?—when it excites curiosity by reporting the little things of great men; rouses attention by splendid events and busy scenes; elevates affection by tales of distress or goodness; excites to virtue by records of eminent excellence; raises mirth by witty sayings and humorous anecdotes; or when it enlarges knowlege and corrects judgment by profound remarks and curious criticisms.

These observations, which are sufficiently obvious, occurred to us during the perusal of the biographical portion of the present volume, which is divided, as usual, into three parts; containing the *History*, the *Appendix*, and the *Memoirs*.—In the first, among other matters, we find notice of a method, suggested by the Rev. Mr. Fisher, for solving all cases of plane and spherical triangles; which is more commodious than the methods of Napier and Pingré.—The *Appendix* contains the lives of Lord Abercromby, one of the Senators of the College of Justice; of Wm. Tytler, Esq.; of Mr. Wm. Hamilton, late Professor of Anatomy and Botany, at Glasgow; and of John Roebuck, M. D.

The materials for this biographical part, looking to the interest which they can excite, appear to us scanty and inefficacious; and we have to wish that the little which was to be said had been said in a different manner. We would willingly exchange the general terms and long phrases, which seem to involve virtues and talents that were splendid and various, for distinct instances of goodness, and evident specimens of mental ability; we would resign abstract designations, in order to gain sensible images. As the lives are now written, we might venture to say, without fearing any very severe retort for want of feeling and judgment, that the perusal of them has made us neither merrier, wiser, nor better; and that characters, so obscurely pourtrayed, impress the mind for a moment faintly and confusedly, and then leave it without a clear object of admiration or a specific model of imitation.

May we not indulge a reasonable hope that the Society of Edinburgh will cease to doom learning and genius to labour on unprofitable

unprofitable subjects? and that, when they have (as undoubtedly they frequently have had) deceased merit to exhibit and to praise, they would not shew its faint, distorted, and enlarged image through the mist of thick panegyric, but give to it a palpable substance, a distinct and sensible shape.—We will not count the worthy men of England against those of Scotland: but, if the panegyric of every Englishman, distinguished for his talents and good qualities, were published, who would not complain of the superfætation of the press? The evil might indeed cure itself, by generating a new one; and, since so few biographical accounts could be interesting, all would be alike neglected.

Dismissing this part of the volume with these remarks, we shall proceed to give an account of the *Memoirs*.

The Physical Class

Opens with a long paper entitled *Account of a Mineral from Strontian, and of a peculiar Species of Earth which it contains.* By Thomas Charles Hope, M. D. F. R. S. Edinburgh. Professor of Medicine, Glasgow.

The *substance* of this paper having been printed in the 3d volume of the Society, and reported in our account of it, (see Rev. vol. xix. N.S. p. 242.) we need not now detain our readers with a more extended account of it.

Observations on the Natural History of Guiana. By William Lochead, Esq.—These observations relate to the Coasts, Winds, Dews, Temperature, Seasons, Country, Savannahs, Rivers, Creeks, and Floods; and they will, no doubt, be useful to the historian of Guiana. The remarks made on the subject of Creeks are particularly deserving of notice:

'*Creeks.*—A number of creeks fall into the Demerary on both sides, but so small that they bear no proportion to the size of the river. You can hardly distinguish their mouths in the woods which overhang the banks. They are so narrow that it is difficult to run a small boat in them; yet you will find in them throughout from two and a half to four fathom water, and they run winding so far back that it will take five, six, eight hours, or more, to carry you up to their heads, where they terminate in small streams from among the sand-hills. The banks of the creeks at their mouths are of the same height as those of the river close by, from five perhaps to twelve feet above the water in the dry season. As you ascend the creek, you might naturally expect to find them rise. It is however the very reverse; they become gradually lower and lower, till at last all round them is a swamp; and the trees on each side in like manner become smaller and smaller, and of different species from what they were. It is now in short exactly a mangrove swamp, with this difference, that the water is quite fresh, the vegetables are not the same, and there

are abundance of arunis and other low herbaceous plants. A little higher up, you lose the wood altogether, and find yourself in a beautiful deep canal, winding through a spacious wet savannah, which is sometimes many leagues in circumference. The first time we went up one of these creeks, (called Camouni), I was surprised at this appearance, and thought it must be a mere local circumstance peculiar to it. We found afterwards the same in one or two more instances, and were satisfied upon enquiry, that it is common to them all. It was natural to look for an explanation of this phenomenon, and I soon found it in one of those laws, which probably extend to all rivers subject to frequent inundations. It has been observed, in particular, of the Ganges *, that the banks of that river are higher than the adjacent lands at a distance from the stream, owing, no doubt, to the annual depositions of mud, &c. during the swell of the river. Apply the same rule to the Demerary, and the difficulty will be solved. The wet savannah behind, and the swampy woods around them, are the body of the low country at its natural level, scarcely a foot or two above the sea. Whatever additional height the land has in the vicinity of the river, from the time you have ascended about twenty miles or so, is all acquired. It has arisen from the sediment of the river during the rainy season, when the country is overflowed so as that all the lower part of it is under water. This deposition must be always more copious, in proportion as it is nearer the stream, where additional quantities are always brought, and where it is kept in motion both by the current and the tide. Every thing which we afterwards saw confirmed this theory, and nothing more directly than the canals which run out at right angles from the river. Some of these extend four miles inward, and they prove to a demonstration, that the land becomes lower and lower the farther you recede from the river. The maps of the colonies confirm it; for in all of them the main body of the low land of Guiana is laid down as savannah, and the woody country, which a stranger or superficial observer would suppose to be the whole or much the greater part of it, is in fact only a border on the sides of the rivers and of the sea, but of considerable breadth, more or less, in proportion to the size of the adjoining river, or, which is generally the same thing, to the acquired height and extent of the soil on either bank. It followed as a consequence, and, as far as we had opportunities of observing, we found it to be the case, that the low land was somewhat higher, and continued so farther down, about the Essequebo than the Demerary; the woods consequently were of greater extent. We found, besides, in the soil adjoining the Essequebo, at least upon the east side, a mixture of sand. The river is full of sand-banks; and it appears, that the finer parts of even this less suspensible substance are raised by the floods and carried among the adjacent woods to be deposited with the mud. The Mahayka, a small river or creek which falls into the sea about twenty or thirty miles to the eastward of the Demerary, though it runs a long way up the country, and spreads into many branches, has but a

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' * Account of the Ganges, &c. Phil. Trans. 1781, by M. RENNELL.'

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very narrow, and often interrupted border of wood upon its banks; it runs through an immense savannah, and so do its branches, with little or no wood, till they approach the sand-hills. The Deltas of the river of Oroonoko, and its numerous mouths, make a figure even in the map of the world. It is to be regretted, that its noble stream has been so long hid from science. What I learned in Trinidad from a gentleman, who had sailed from its mouth to the Angusturas, about 300 miles up, confirms and illustrates, in the fullest manner, the above general rule. The western mouths of it opposite Trinidad, are navigable only for launches drawing six or seven feet water. At and opposite them, the bottom is shallow and muddy, and the coast a low mangrove swamp, resembling, in all respects, that of Guiana. You must ascend those branches several days before you reach the main stream; and in doing so, you find the same phenomena as in ascending the Demerary, but in a still greater degree. At first you have the mangrove, or some similar swamp, and behind it on both sides for about twenty leagues, the land, if you can call it so, hardly emerging from the water. Afterwards the ground appears; and, as you go up, rises still higher and higher on the banks above the common level of the stream. The trees become, in the same manner, of different species, and much taller than they were below. The channel in which you are, from being wide, grows narrower by degrees. It is from about one and a half to three-fourths of a mile broad near the entrance; and, when it joins the main stream, is not more than about 200 yards. It has then acquired a considerable depth, and the banks may be about twenty feet high. Along the main stream of the river, or Boca de Nasios, the gradual rise, and other circumstances attending it, are quite similar. All this height of the bank, I can make no doubt, is entirely acquired ground, formed by the sediment of the floods, greater near the streams than at a distance from them; and though I have no knowledge of the nature of the land in the Deltas and their vicinity, I would not hesitate to say, that great part of the interior body of each island, and most probably of the main on either side, where it is low country, consists of nothing else than wet savannahs.'

A short Paper on the Principles of the antecedental Calculus. By James Glenie, Esq. M. A. F. R. S. London and Edinb.

This memoir is said to be published at the suggestion of the author's friends, in order to elucidate and establish more firmly the principles of the antecedental calculus. The nature of the paper, and its reference to other works, nearly preclude both extract and comment. The principles of the fluxionary calculus have not, till of late years, been clearly and rightly established: but, whatever advantages the antecedental calculus may possess over the fluxionary in extent of application, it is inferior to it in evidence. If Mr. Glenie has arrived at truth, he has travelled to it by an entangled and abrupt path.

In the latter part of the memoir, the author promises soon to give the application of his calculus to several physical pro-

blems of importance; and to shew that, as it furnishes a greater variety of ways for expressing antecedentals than the fluxionary caculus does for fluxions, so it will open new and extensive rules for finding antecedents, as yet altogether unknown in the inverse method of fluxions.

Observations on the Trigonometrical Tables of the Brahmins. By John Playfair, F.R.S. Ed. Professor of Mathematics, Edinb. The principles and rules of the trigonometry of the Brahmins are contained in the Surya Siddhanta, one of the inspired writings of the Hindoos: a book which, with sedate and strict science, interweaves many wild and extravagant fictions. The subject of the present memoir is the construction of the trigonometrical tables in that work.

In the beginning of his paper, the Professor offers a reason why the division of the circumference was made into 360 parts, both in Greece and Hindostan: he supposes that the inventors of the circular instruments for measuring the heavens were naturally led to a division of them, which should correspond to the space daily described by the sun in the ecliptic; and this was nearly to be effected by making each division one 360th part of the whole circumference. This reason appears more probable from the Chinese division of the circle into 365 parts and $\frac{1}{4}$.

Ptolemy and the Greek mathematicians had two measures for arches and chords: the former were parts of the circumference, the latter of the radius: but the Brahmins, adopting, it would seem, the notions of an advanced science, used only one measure for arches, chords, and sines, &c. The circumference was divided into 21600 parts, of which the radius contained 3438.

The trigonometrical tables contained in the treatise previously mentioned are two, the one consisting of sines, the other of versed sines: the use of sines was unknown to the Greeks, who calculated by chords. In the first table, are given the sines to every twenty-fourth part of the quadrant; in the 2d table, the versed sines: the sines are expressed in minutes of the circumference, without any fraction of a minute: but there is a reason for thinking, as Mr. Playfair observes, that this want of exactness did not originate from any inability in the Hindoo mathematicians to advance their calculations nearer to the truth.

The following extract contains the rules for constructing their tables:

'Their rules for constructing their tables of sines, may be reduced to two, viz. the one for finding the sine of the least arch in the table, that

that of 3°. 45′, and the other for finding the sines of the multiples of that arch, its triple, quadruple, &c. Both of these Mr. Davis has translated, judging very rightly, that it was impossible to give two more curious specimens of the geometrical knowledge of the Hindoo philosophers: the first is extracted from a commentary on the Surya Siddhanta; the other from the Surya Siddhanta itself.

'With respect to the first, the method proceeds by the continual bisection of the arch of 30°, and correspondent extractions of the square root, to find the sine and co-sine of the half, the fourth part, the eighth part, and so on, of that arch. The rule, when the sine of an arch is given, to find that of half the arch, is precisely the same with our own: "The sine of an arch being given, find the co-sine, and thence the versed sine, of the same arch: then multiply half the radius into the versed sine, and the square root of the product is the sine of half the given arch." Now, as the sine of 30°, was well known to those mathematicians to be half the radius, it was of consequence given: thence, by the rule just laid down, was found the sine of 15°, then of 7°. 30′, and lastly of 3°. 45′, which is the sine required. Thus the sine of 3°. 45′, would be found equal to 224, 44″, as above observed, and, the sine of 7°. 30′, equal to 448′. 39″, and, taking the nearest integers, the first was made equal to 225, and the second to 449 *.

'When, by the bisections that have just been described, the sine of 3°. 45′, or of 225′, was found equal to 225′, the rest of the table was constructed by a rule, that, for its simplicity and elegance, as well as for some other reasons, is entitled to particular attention. It is as follows: "Divide the first jyapinda, 225′ by 225; the quotient 1, deducted from the dividend, leaves 224′, which added to the first jyapinda, or sine, gives the second, or the sine of 7°. 30, equal to 449′. Divide the second jyapinda, which is thus found, by 225, and deduct 2, the nearest integer to the quotient, from the former remainder 224, and this new remainder 222′, added to the second jyapinda,

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'* By such continual bisections, the Hindoo mathematicians, like those of Europe before the invention of infinite series, may have approximated to the ratio of the diameter to the circumference, and found it to be nearly that of 1 to 3.1416 as above observed. A much less degree of geometrical knowledge than they possessed, would inform them, that small arches are nearly equal to their sines, and that the smaller they are, the nearer is this equality to the truth. If, therefore, they assumed the radius, equal to 1, or any number at pleasure, after carrying the bisection of the arch of 30, two steps farther than in the above construction, they would find the sine of the 384th part of the circle, which, therefore, multiplied by 384, would nearly be equal to the circumferenee itself, and would actually give the proportion of 1 to 3.14159, as somewhat greater than that of the diameter to the circumference. By carrying the bisections farther, they might verify this calculation, or estimate the degree of its exactness, and might assume the ratio of 1 to 3.1416 as more simple than that just mentioned, and sufficiently near to the truth.'

will give the third jyapinda equal to 671′. Divide this last by 225, and subtract 3, the nearest integer to the quotient, from the former remainder 222′, and there will be left 219′, which, added to the third jyapinda, gives the fourth; and so on unto the twenty-fourth or last."

Making a slight change in the enunciation of the rule, the Professor demonstrates the principle on which it is founded; which may be thus generally stated:—If there be three arches in arithmetical progression, the sine of the middle arch is to the sum of the sines of the two extreme arches, as the sine of the difference of the arches to the sine of twice that difference. Mr. P. remarks that

'This theorem is well known in Europe; it is justly reckoned a very remarkable property of the circle; and it serves to shew, that the numbers in a table of sines constitute a series, in which every term is formed exactly in the same way, from the two preceding terms, viz. by multiplying the last by a certain, constant number, and subtracting the last but one from the product.

'Now, it is worth remarking, that this property of the table of sines, which has been so long known in the East, was not observed by the mathematicians of Europe till about two hundred years ago. The theorem, indeed, concerning the circle, from which it is deduced, under one shape or another, has been known to them from an early period, and may be traced up to the writings of Euclid, where a proposition nearly related to it forms the 97th of the Data: "If a straight line be drawn within a circle given in magnitude, cutting off a segment containing a given angle, and if the angle in the segment be bisected by a straight line produced till it meet the circumference; the straight lines, which contain the given angle, shall both of them together have a given ratio to the straight line which bisects the angle." This is not precisely the same with the theorem which has been shewn to be the foundation of the Hindoo rule, but differs from it only by affirming a certain relation to hold among the chords of arches, which the other affirms to hold of their sines. It is given by Euclid as useful for the construction of geometrical problems; and trigonometry being then unknown, he probably did not think of any other application of it. But what may seem extraordinary is, that when, about 400 years afterwards, Ptolemy, the astronomer, constructed a set of trigonometrical tables, he never considered Euclid's theorem, though he was probably not ignorant of it, as having any connection with the matter he had in hand. He, therefore, founded his calculations on another proposition, containing a property of quadrilateral figures inscribed in a circle, which he seems to have investigated on purpose, and which is still distinguished by his name. This proposition comprehends in fact Euclid's, and of course the Hindoo theorem, as a particular case; and though this case would have been the most useful to Ptolemy, of all others, it appears to have escaped his observation; on which account he did not perceive that every number in his tables might be calculated from the two preceding numbers,

numbers, by an operation extremely simple, and every where the same; and therefore his method of constrncting them is infinitely more operose and complicated than it needed to have been.

'Not only did this escape Ptolemy, but it remained unnoticed by the mathematicians, both Europeans and Arabians, who came after him, though they applied the force of their minds to nothing more than to trigonometry, and actually enriched that science by a great number of valuable discoveries. They continued to construct their tables by the same methods which Ptolemy had employed, till about the end of the sixteenth century, when the theorem in question, or that on which the Hindoo rule is founded, was discovered by Vieta. We are however ignorant by what train of reasoning that excellent geometer discovered it; for though it is published in his *Treatise on Angular Sections*, it appears there not with his own demonstration, but with one given by an ingenious mathematician of our own country, Alexander Anderson of Aberdeen. It was then regarded as a theorem entirely new, and I know not that any of the geometers of that age remarked its affinity to the propositions of Euclid and Ptolemy. It was soon after applied in Europe, as it had been so many ages before in Hindostan, and quickly gave to the construction of the trigonometrical canon all the simplicity which it seems capable of attaining. From all this, I think it might fairly be concluded, even if we had no knowledge of the antiquity of the Surya Siddhanta, that the trigonometry contained in it is not borrowed from Greece or Arabia, as its fundamental rule was unknown to the geometers of both those countries, and is greatly preferable to that which they employed.'

The latter part of this excellent memoir is employed in ascertaining the date of the Surya Siddhanta, and the origin of the mathematical sciences in India. Trigonometry cannot be supposed to have been introduced till considerable advancements had been made in geometry and astronomy. The first step in astronomy was made in Greece, 1140 years before the Christian æra; and Hipparchus invented trigometry 130 years before the same æra. If, therefore, the age of the Surya Siddhanta be taken at 2000 years before Christ, we must add 1000 more to arrive at the origin of the sciences in India: which will thus appear to be placed near the celebrated period of the Caly Yug, the year 3102 before our æra. It is to this æra that M. Bailly, in his antient Astronomy, refers the construction of the tables in Hindostan.

Some Geometrical Porisms, with Examples of their Application to the Solution of Problems. By Mr. William Wallace, Assistant Teacher of the Mathematics in the Academy of Perth. Communicated by Mr. Playfair.—The subject of porisms has been amply, ingeniously, and learnedly discussed in a former volume by the communicator of this paper *. The present memoir

* See Rev. vol. xix. N. S. p. 243.

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will not be unacceptable to those mathematicians who have perused that of Mr. Playfair.

Determination of the Latitude and Longitude of the Observatory at Aberdeen. By John Andrew Mackay, LL. D. F. R. S. Ed. These papers display considerable labour, but do not admit of our making any abstract from them.

An Account of certain Motions which small lighted Wicks acquire, when swimming in a Bason of Oil; together with Observations upon the Phenomena tending to explain the Principles upon which such Motions depend: communicated in a Letter from Patrick Wilson, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Practical Astronomy in the University of Glasgow, to John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.

It would be a just reproach of philosophy, if it should confine itself to the contemplation of the grand operations of nature, and disdain to attend to the causes of common appearances; nevertheless, there is still such a thing as trifling in philosophy. We heartily wish Professor Wilson much amusement with his floating lights;—his minikin lamps, we observe, are treated in rather lofty language.

Account of a singular Halo of the Moon. By Wm. Hall, Esq. of White Hall near Berwick, F. R. S. Edinburgh.

After a mild day, and in a pretty clear evening, the moon shining bright, on the 18th February 1796, a large and a small halo were observed from the author's residence, about the moon; the diameter of the larger one subtending an angle of a hundred and twelve degrees, that of the small one being under 12° and more than 8°.—Mr. Hall concludes by remarking:

'This halo appears to be of the kind called by the learned a *Corona*; and as it somewhat resembles the famous one of the sun, observed at Rome in the year 1629, and described by Scheiner *, it deserves the more attention, especially as the great halo, on the present occasion, having its south-western limb elevated to the height of 54°, and its north-eastern depressed to within 14° of the horizon, was in an oblique position, not easily reconciled with the theory of Huygens, which seems to require that such circles should be equally elevated above the horizon all round. It also shews, that Scheiner's original plan of the halo at Rome, which represented it as oblique, may have been right, and that Huygens's correction, which makes it parallel to the horizon, was probably an erroneous conjecture.'

A new Series of the Rectification of the Ellipsis; with some Observations on the Evolution of the Formula $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos.\phi)^n$. By James Ivory, A. M.

'* Smith's Optics, vol. i. § 534.'

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The common series for the rectification of the ellipse is

$$P \times \left(1 - \frac{1.1}{2.2}\varepsilon^2 - \frac{1.1.1.3}{2.4\ 2.4}\varepsilon^4 - \frac{1.1.3\ 1.3.5}{2.4.6\ 2.4.6}\varepsilon^6 - \&c. \right.$$

where p represents the semicircumference of the circle, and ϵ the excentricity of the ellipse. The series which this author has invented, and which has the advantage of a quicker convergency, is

$$\frac{\varpi}{1+e}\left(1 + \frac{1^2}{2^2}e + \frac{1^2.1^2}{2^2.4^2}e^4 + \frac{1^2.1^2.3^2}{2^2.4^2.6^2}e^6 \ \&c, \right.$$

$$\epsilon \text{ being} = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-\varepsilon^2}}{1+\sqrt{1-\varepsilon^2}}$$

The first step to obtain this series is made by supposing the quantity $(a^2+b^2-2ab.\cos.z)^n = A + B\cos z + C\cos 2z + \&c.$ and thence deducing the values of A and B: if the semitransverse of the ellipse is 1, and z be the arc of the corresponding circle, then the fluxion of the arc of the ellipse is $= z.\sqrt{1-\varepsilon^2\cos^2 z}$ or $= z.\sqrt{1-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}\cos 2z}$ which, compared with $z.\sqrt{a^2+b^2-2ab\cos 2z}$, gives the value of a and b; and then, taking the whole fluent while z from o becomes p, the length of the same ellipse is obtained.

The latter part of the memoir is concerning the evolution of the fraction $(a^2+b^2-2ab\cos\varphi)^{-\frac{3}{2}}$ which occurs in computing the planetary disturbances.

A short mineralogical Description of the Mountain of Gibraltar. By Major Imrie.

We wish that this description had been given in simpler language. Many of the words appear to us to be *exotics*.—The remarks concerning the fossil bones, however, are worthy of notice:

'It only now remains for me to mention what are generally called the fossil bones, found in the rock of Gibraltar. These have been much talked of, and by some looked upon as a phænomenon beyond the power of explanation. The general idea, which exists concerning them, is, that they are found in a petrified state, and inclosed in the solid calcareous rock; but these are mistakes, which could only arise from inaccurate observation and false description.

'In the perpendicular fissures of the rock, and in some of the caverns of the mountain, (all of which afford evident proofs of their former communication with the surface,) a calcareous concretion is found, of a reddish brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and considerable induration, inclosing the bones of various animals, some of which have the appearance of being human. These bones are of various sizes, and lie in all directions, intermixed with shells

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of snails, fragments of the calcareous rock, and particles of spar; all of which materials are still to be seen in their natural uncombined states, partially scattered over the surface of the mountain. These having been swept, by heavy rains at different periods, from the surface into the situations above described, and having remained for a long series of years in those places of rest, exposed to the permeating action of water, having become enveloped in, and cemented by, the calcareous matter which it deposits.

'The bones, in this composition, have not the smallest appearance of being petrified; and if they have undergone any change, it is more like that of calcination than that of petrifaction, as the most solid parts of them generally admit of being cut and scraped down with the same ease as chalk.

'Bones combined in such concretions are not peculiar to Gibraltar: they are found in such large quantities in the country of Dalmatia, and upon coasts in the islands of Cherso and Osero, that some naturalists have been induced to go so far as to assert, that there has been a regular stratum of such matter in that country, and that its present broken and interrupted appearance has been caused by earthquakes, or other convulsions, experienced in that part of the globe. But, of late years, a traveller, (Abbé ALBERTO FORTIS,) has given a minute description of the concretion in which the bones are found in that country; and by his account it appears that with regard to situation, composition and colour, it is perfectly similar to that found at Gibraltar. By his description it also appears, that the two mountain rocks of Gibraltar and Dalmatia consist of the same species of calcareous stone; from which it is to be presumed, that the concretions in both have been formed in the same manner and about the same periods.

'Perhaps if the fissures and caves of the rock of Dalmatia were still more minutely examined, their former communications with the surface might yet be traced, as in those described above; and, in that case, there would be at least a strong probability, that the materials of the concretions of that country have been brought together by the same accidental cause, which, in my opinion, has collected those found in the caverns of Gibraltar. I have traced, in Gibraltar, this concretion, from the lowest part of a deep perpendicular fissure, up to the surface of the mountain. As it approached to the surface, the concretion became less firmly combined, and, when it had no covering of the calcareous rock, a small degree of adhesion only remained, which was evidently produced by the argillaceous earth, in its composition, having been moistened by rain and baked by the sun.'

Description of a Thermometer, which marks the greatest Degree of Heat and Cold, from one Time of Observation to another, and may also register its own Height at every Instant. By Alexander Keith, Esq. F. R. S. & F. A. S. Edin.

This thermometer is intended as an improvement on the one which was invented by Mr. Six, which shews the greatest rise or fall from one period of observation to another. The

invention of Mr. Keith appears to be a very ingenious one, and adequate to the end proposed. Is it not, however, liable to the objection under which that of Mr. Six has fallen, that it requires too delicate workmanship to be fit for common use?

Description of a Barometer, which marks the Rise and Fall of the Mercury from two different Times of Observation. By the Same.

The contrivance for indicating the greatest rise or fall is the same as in the thermometer.

Meteorological Abstract for the Years 1794, 5, and 6.—The mean temperature of 1794 was greater than in ordinary seasons by almost 2°: but, falling chiefly in the winter months, it was not attended with any particular advantage. The rain that fell was 28.73 inches.—The commencement of 1795 was remarkable for severe and continued cold: the thermometer being at 8 P. M. 22d Jan. at $14\frac{1}{2}$°: but the medium, during 52 or 53 days, was 29° 6. with remarkable fluctuations: the rain amounted to 35.729 inches.—The winter of 1796 was peculiarly mild; the thermometer standing, for 10 days in the middle of January, above 50° day and night. The whole year was remarkable for dryness, the fall of rain being only 19.395 inches.

LITERARY CLASS.

On the Origin and Principles of Gothic Architecture. By Sir James Hall, Bart. F. R. & A. S. S. Edin.

This essay is the precursor of a more comprehensive one which the author destines to the same subject; in this, however, are contained his fundamental principles of the theory of Gothic Architecture. Of the origin of this style of building, formerly despised from wrong motives, and since commended inconsiderately and beyond its deserts, whose beauties must be felt, and whose conveniences cannot be demonstrated, we have small and imperfect knowlege:—but, in the free and wide field of conjecture, many theories have been advanced, all resting on a very small basis of acknowleged truth, yet more or less supported by facts and rational hypothesis. In such theories, the object has been to deduce the peculiarities of the Gothic architecture from some simple principle; and to shew the idea which so predominates, as to make that a regular system, which might otherwise appear to be a mass of parts and ornaments, fancifully and capriciously formed and put together.

The prominent characteristics of the Gothic style are the clustered pillar and the pointed arch. The origin of the latter has

has been differently assigned: it has been referred to the form which the tops of an alley of trees assume; to the shape of the whale's jaw-bone; and to the intersection of circular arches. The origin discovered by the present writer, and the circumstances which led to it, are thus related:

'I was first led by Mr. Byres, a very respectable member of this Society, to observe, among the remains of antiquity at Rome, many beautiful examples of the application of these principles by the ancients; and though my view of the subject was then very obscure, the theoretical solution of the question not having occurred till long after, I was fully aware of the very great practical advantages which they had derived from the employment of the principle of imitation.

'Occupied with this view of ancient art, as I was travelling through the western provinces of France, in my return from Italy, in the end of 1785, I was struck with the beauty of many Gothic edifices, which, far from appearing contemptible, after the masterpieces of art I had seen in Italy and Sicily, now pleased me more than ever. I was thus induced to believe, that those extensive works, possessed throughout of so peculiar a character, and so eminent for unity of style, could not have been carried on, unless the architects who built them, like those of ancient Greece, had been guided in their execution, by some peculiar principle; and being dissatisfied with all the theories of the art which I had heard of, I undertook the investigation, which has given rise to the following Essay *.

'Conceiving that some rustic building, differing widely from the Grecian original, might have suggested the Gothic forms, I had made it my business to search for such a one, when the following accidental circumstance greatly assisted my speculations.

'It happened that the peasants of the country through which I was travelling were then employed in collecting and carrying home the long rods or poles which they make use of to support their vines, or to split into hoops; and these were to be seen, in every village, standing in bundles, or waving, partly loose, upon carts. It occurred to me, that a rustic dwelling might be constructed of such rods, bearing a resemblance to works of Gothic architecture, and from which the peculiar forms of that style might have been derived †.

This

'* After stating my own views at full length, I shall enumerate and examine the various opinions of others on the subject of Gothic architecture, no less than five in number. At the time here alluded to, I was acquainted with an opinion, which I have since found to have originated with Dr. Warburton, that the Gothic style was copied from an alley of trees. I was aware of the advantages of this theory in some essential points, yet it always appeared to me unsatisfactory in many others; and I conceive it to be at best far too vague to serve as a guide to the artist.

'† This resemblance, though very obvious in many cases, has not, to my knowledge, been observed by any one but the late Mr. Grose;

This conjecture was at first employed to account for the main parts of the structure, and for its general appearance only; but after an investigation carried on, at different intervals, during the course of these eleven years, with the assistance of some friends, both in the collection of materials, and in the solution of difficulties, I have been enabled to reduce even the most intricate forms of this elaborate style to the same simple origin.

'In the present state of the question, the following inquiry must be considered as falling under the denomination of, what is called by Mr. Stewart *, "*Theoretical History*," and by some French authors, "*Histoire raisonée;*" being an attempt to trace by conjecture, the steps through which an art has passed, in attaining the state in which we observe it. Indeed it is probable, that few investigations have been undertaken, which more completely correspond to that definition, since, in most subjects of this kind, many steps of the progress are known, and nothing is required but to fill up, by theory, the interval between them; whereas, in the present case, as all direct testimony is wanting, and as no steps of the actual progress of the art have come to our knowledge, our opinions on the subject, hitherto, can only amount to presumptions, founded upon the correspondence of the theory with the monuments of the art now in existence; and, the more numerous and complicated the cases are, in which this coincidence takes place, the greater probability there is in favour of the system.

'But, though such be the actual situation of the inquiry, we may hope to see it, hereafter, assume a different form; for, should the conjecture, brought forward in the following Essay, carry with it sufficient plausibility to excite a spirit of research among persons best qualified to pursue the subject, there is reason to expect, that discoveries may be made, of a literary or architectural nature, by which its truth or falsehood will be established beyond dispute.

'What has just been said will, it is hoped, serve as my apology for having advanced a system, which, strictly speaking, is founded on conjecture alone; and, on the other hand, for having enumerated a multitude of particulars, many of which might justly be considered as superfluous, were the theory supported by direct testimony.'

Without the aid of plates, we are unable to follow the author in the farther illustration of his theory. His readers, according

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to whom it seems to have occurred in a transient way. He makes use of the shape of a bower to assist his description of a Gothic roof, (Antiquities of England and Wales, p. 75.); but he does not go so far as to ascribe the architectonic forms to this origin; a view which, probably, would not have escaped him, had he not been preoccupied with a different one; for he considers the rudiments of a Gothic arch as formed "of two flat stones with their tops inclined to each other, and touching." I did not meet with this passage till several years after I had undertaken the present inquiry, and had carried it a considerable length.'

'* Biographical Account of Mr. Smith.'

to

to their temper, will smile at or applaud the zeal of the theorist, which has led him to *plant a Willow Cathedral* in confirmation of the truth of his system—but we cannot forbear to quote the account of this pious and philosophic work:

'Finding that all the essential parts of Gothic architecture could thus be explained, by tracing its origin to the imitation of a very simple rustic edifice, I was desirous of submitting the theory to a kind of experimental test, by endeavouring actually to construct a building such as has been described. With the help of a very ingenious country workman *, I began this in spring 1792, and completed it, in the course of the winter following, in a manner which far surpassed my expectation, and which has already met with the approbation of several Members of this Society. The method of construction answered so well in practice, that I doubt if a better could be followed, with such simple materials; and so primitive is the mode of execution, that I believe, with a little ingenuity, the whole might be executed without the help of a sharp instrument, or of any materials but such as the woods afford.

'A set of posts of ash, about three inches in diameter, were placed in two rows, four feet asunder, and at the interval of four feet in the rows. Then a number of slender and tapering willow rods, ten feet in length, were applied to the posts, and formed in the manner already described, into a frame, which being covered with thatch, produced a very substantial roof, under which a person can walk with ease †.

'This little structure exhibits, in miniature, all the characteristic features of the Gothic style. It is in the form of a Cross, with a Nave, a Choir, and a north and south Transept. The thatch, being so disposed on the frame, as not to hide the rods of which it is composed, they represent accurately the pointed and semicircular arches, and all the other peculiarities of a groined roof. The door is copied from that of Beverley. The windows are occupied by a number of designs, executed, (by means of split rods,) in exact resemblance of those which actually occur in various Gothic edifices. Round each window is a border of compact wicker-work, which, by deepening the shade, adds greatly to the general effect. At a little distance stands the spire, formed of eight straight poles of willow planted in the earth, and rising in an octagonal pyramid to the height nearly of twenty feet. Various other Gothic forms are likewise introduced, which being of the more complicated kind, will be explained in a subsequent part of this Essay.

'* John White, cooper, in the village of Cockburnspath, in Berwickshire.'

'† The roof, being protected from the weather, is still in perfect preservation, though it has now stood about five years; but the windows and other parts, which are more exposed, are going fast to decay, though they have been often repaired. Soon after the work was finished, a very accurate drawing of it was made by an ingenious young artist, Mr. A. Carse, which it is proposed to engrave for the illustration of this Essay, when published at full length.'

'The

'The appearance of the whole, whether seen from within or from without, bears, I flatter myself, no small resemblance to a cathedral.'

M. *Chevalier's Tableau de la Plaine de Troye*, illustrated and confirmed from the Observations of subsequent Travels and others. By Andrew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S. Ed. Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.

This memoir renews the controversy of the War of Troy, of which we have given an account in reviewing the publications of M. Chevalier and Mr. Bryant, Monthly Reviews for May 1793, p. 96. and for February 1797, p. 142, and in some subsequent Numbers. The present controvertist is Mr. Dalzel, the original translator of the *Tableau de la Plaine de Troye*; his zeal is considerable; and he has taken great pains to illustrate and confirm what his friend M. Chevalier has written,—not without success. His essay comprehends a short abstract of the material contents of the original work, as confirmed by subsequent travellers; an account of the opinions entertained of it by learned men; and the several papers, letters, &c. which are the testimonies to the truth of M. Chevalier's narration. Among those who have given their suffrages in favour of the Plain of Troy, are the Abbé Barthélémi, author of the Travels of Anacharsis; and Professor Heyne of Göttingen, who caused a German translation of M. C.'s work to be made, illustrated and enriched it with a preface and an Essay on the Topography of the Iliad, and moreover added a Dissertation on the Height and Shadow of Mount Athos, by M. Kaenster. The English Ambassador at Constantinople, (Mr. Robert Liston,) Mr. Hawkins, Dr. Sibthorpe, and Mr. Dallaway, have by their own observations confirmed the truth of M. Chevalier's description.

It would be tedious to compare the accounts of the last mentioned travellers with the several passages in the "Plain of Troy;" it is sufficient to remark that the object of the present memoir, as set forth in the title-page, is attained. The account of M. Chevalier, in the most material circumstances, has received ample and satisfactory confirmation. The memoir before us, however, has a second object in view, not inferior to the primary and alleged one in importance; namely, the refutation of Mr. Bryant's scepticisms on the existence of Troy: but in attaining this second object, Mr. Dalzel has in our opinion laboured with less felicity. We are unwilling to become a party in the controversy; and it will not be a dereliction of our former opinions to observe that the reality of Troy and of the Trojan war is not necessarily proved, although M. Chevalier's description be

verified in every instance. Homer, it is probable, would be acquainted with the scene of action, whether a real or a feigned scene of action, and adapted his descriptions accordingly. The theatre of his war had a substantial and permanent existence; the war itself might be the creature of fable, or of the poet's imagination. From every account, it appears that of the city Troy no vestige remains. What M. Chevalier has proved concerning its site, and what the letters of Mr. Hawkins and Dr. Sibthorpe confirm, amounts to no more than this; —that, in the country styled the Troad, there is a place which has many conveniences, and much natural strength, to recommend it as a proper situation for a fortified city.

By means of a quotation from Mr. Dallaway's description of Constantinople, &c. Mr. Dalzel obviates Mr. Bryant's objection against the situation of Troy as too distant from the sea; he assents to the validity of other objections made against the distance of the promontories, the barrows, &c.; and concludes with a compliment and reproof.

In a contest such as Mr. Bryant has excited, few are qualified to enter the lists. Not many will espouse his cause: but he may hope for some auxiliaries either among those who love scepticism for scepticism's sake, and would rather be singular in their opinion than correct in their judgment; or among those of stern and rigid minds who demand truth and truth only, and are resolute to attain it with whatever sacrifice of prejudice or of feelings.—The great bulk of readers, however, who are swayed by their feelings and prejudices, will hold fast their faith in the existence of Troy: so long accustomed to feel delight in reading Homer, and to believe that the Trojan war really happened, they strongly associate the beauties of the poem with the truth of the history; and they will fear lest the loss of Troy should bring with it a loss of their pleasure. To be convinced, however, of the stability of Homer's excellencies, though learning should demolish and dissipate the city which he celebrated, there is little need of any nice and logical disquisition; we have only to recur to his poem, in order to be convinced that his beauties have suffered no blight: we shall still find ourselves glow with sympathy at his sentiments, and again kindle into animation at his descriptions; we shall then feel disposed to dismiss a controversy like the present with frigid indifference, and to consider it as one of those which the pride of wit and learning has uselessly excited. Troy may be the baseless fabric of the poet's vision: but the Iliad has its foundation in truth and nature, and neither time nor criticism can cause it to decay.

An

An advertisement prefixed to this volume informs us that the society had come to a resolution, on the 15th Feb. 1798, 'that a publication of papers, communicated to the society, shall be hereafter made annually, whether such papers be sufficient to form an entire volume, or only a part of a volume:'—but we have not yet heard that this resolution has been carried into effect.

Wood....e.

ART. II. *The Scotish Gallery; or Portraits of eminent Persons of Scotland;* many of them after Pictures by the celebrated Jameson, at Taymouth, and other Places, with brief Accounts of the Characters represented, and an Introduction on the Rise and Progress of Painting in Scotland. By John Pinkerton. Royal 8vo. pp. 230. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Harding. 1799.

THIS publication, we believe, is the first that has appeared in which Scotish portraits have alone been introduced: in Birch's Lives, some few eminent persons of that nation were inserted, but the proportion was very inconsiderable.—Few countries can boast a greater number of distinguished characters both in literature and in arms than Scotland; and the talents of Jameson, the Pupil of Rubens, and a fellow-labourer with Vandyke, were exerted to perpetuate their likenesses. Mr. Pinkerton, whose zeal in the cause of learning and science have been shewn on frequent occasions, unwilling that any of these valuable portraits should perish by time or neglect, before they had been both preserved and multiplied by the hand of the engraver, has engaged in this undertaking with the most disinterested views. 'His sole motives,' he declares, 'were his own curiosity, and a warm inborn wish, which has stimulated most of his literary endeavours, that his countrymen should not neglect their native productions of art and literature. To emolument he never looked; and after the sacrifice of much time, will be contented to find that he has made but a small sacrifice of gold.'

The Introduction contains a short view of the Rise and Progress of Painting in Scotland;—we wish that it had been consistent with the author's plan to have enlarged on this part of his subject, as it is of an interesting and amusing nature.—It is conjectured by Mr. P. from the antient and continual commerce between Scotland and the Netherlands, that the first artists were Flemings. So early as the year 1430, painting had become very common; as is proved by the following curious anecdote, taken from Bowar, the continuator of Fordun:

'A highland robber having taken two cows from a poor woman, she swore she would wear no shoes till she had complained to the

king. The savage, in ridicule of her oath, nailed horse-shoes to her feet. When her wounds were healed, she proceeded to the royal presence, told her story, and shewed the scars. The just monarch instantly dispatched orders to secure the thief, who being brought to Perth, and condemned, "the King commanded that he should be clothed in a canvas frock, on which was painted the figure of a man fastening horse-shoes to a woman's feet. In this dress he was exhibited through the streets of the city for two days, then dragged at the tail of a horse to the gallows, and hanged."

The native artists, however, according to our author, commenced with Jameson; who was born at Aberdeen, and who burst forth at once with meridian splendour. Many particulars of the life of this eminent painter are given by Lord Orford in his Anecdotes of Painting; to which the present author has made a few additions, and has subjoined a catalogue of his works. The largest collection of his portraits is that at Taymouth, the seat of the Earl of Braidalbane, whose ancestor, Sir Colin Campbell, was the painter's chief patron. The account of the person who was employed to copy these valuable pictures is truly affecting:

'This artist was the late ingenious Mr. Robert Johnson of Newcastle, whose death, while employed in this task, is deeply to be regretted. He had copied about fifteen; and four remained to be done, the Marquis and Earl of Argyle, and two from the Genealogical Tree, when the editor was surprised with an account of his deplorable fate, in a letter from Messieurs Morisons dated 18th Nov. 1796. It states that, a few days before, they had received a letter from the man with whom Johnson lodged at the village of Kenmore, desiring them to send for him, as he was quite delirious; and by express the day following they were informed of his death. That, in his anxiety to complete his labour, (he was to have been at Taymouth in June, but a fit of illness prevented him till August,) he would sit all day in a room without fire: a violent cold was the consequence, which neglect increased to a fever, "it flew to his brain, and, terrible to relate, he was bound with ropes, beat, and treated like a madman." This ignorance of the people around him was happily enlightened by the casual arrival of a physician, who ordered blisters; and poor Johnson died in peace! Though the editor endeavoured to solace himself by the reflection that he was giving bread to an ingenious man, whose fate was thus decreed, yet he could not help deeply feeling his being the innocent cause of an event so deplorable in all its circumstances.

'His correspondent at the same time informed him, that Johnson had been bound apprentice to Bewick, by his father, an aged carpenter of Gateshead near Newcastle—that Mr. Bewick, observing his uncommon genius for drawing, employed him to trace the figures on the wood in his elegant history of quadrupeds—that he had been employed about six months, on his own account, before he engaged to go to Taymouth—and that his labour supported his aged parents.'

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The volume contains fifty-two portraits, among whom will be found persons truly illustrious, by their rank, their genius, and their science; since among them we discover the names of Knox, Buchanan, Johnston, Drummond of Hawthornden, Fletcher of Salton, James Gregory, and Maclaurin. Of many of these distinguished characters, we think, the biographical account is too short; and we doubt whether the reason assigned by the author is satisfactory, viz. that a fuller and more complete narrative may be found in other productions. This reason, if it be admitted as a good one, renders the possession of those other works necessary, in order to give a knowlege of the persons here represented.—We should have been glad to have found more particulars of William Drummond, whose genius was so highly admired by our dramatic writer Ben Jonson, as to induce him to walk to Hawthornden from London in order to pay him a visit. Mr. Pinkerton has, in this instance, made some amends by the introduction of the following Sonnet, prefixed to an extremely scarce book, *Penardo* and *Laissa*, by Patrick Gordon, Dort, 1615. 12mo.

'Come forth, Laissa, spred thy lockes of gold,
Show thy cheekes roses in their virgin prime!
And though no gemmes thee decke, which Indies hold,
Yield not unto the fairest of thy tyme.
No ceruse, brought farre farre beyond the seas,
Noe poisone-lyke cinabre paints thy face;
Let them have that whose native hues displease,
Thow gracest nakednesse, it doth thee grace.
Thy sire no pick-purse is of others witt;
Those jewellis be his owne which thee adorne.
And though thou after greatter ones be borne,
Thou mayst be bold ev'n midst the first to sitt.
For whilst fair Juliett, or the Farie Queene
Doe live, with their's thy beautie shall be seene.
M. WILLLIAM DRUMMOND.'

We in vain look for anecdotes of that distinguished politician and philosopher, Fletcher of Salton; whose portrait alone, as here given, creates great interest, and a strong desire of being made acquainted with the original. Though we do not assent to the doubts and suspicions conveyed by the following letter of Sir David Dalrymple to Lord Buchan, we transcribe it for the amusement of our readers:

'My Lord, *Newhailes, April the* 26, 1787.

'Your Lordship, I observe, means to oblige the world with the Life of Fletcher of Salton. It may well be supposed that, considering the people from whom I come, he is no Saint in my Calender—what I wish to know, was he a whig at bottom? I have moral evidence which convinces me that another of that party, Lord Belhaven,

had a private meeting with the Duke of Queensberry in the gallery of the Abbey. *Ville qui parle*, your Lordship knows the rest of the French proverb. The Duke of Hamilton went secretly aboard of the ship of Van Aersen, Admiral Sommelsdyke, in the road of Leith, and proposed an union with Holland. You may well judge *who* was to have had an office like *that* of a Scotish Stadtholder. The Admiral related this anecdote to Lord Auchinleck, his grand nephew, from whom I had it.

'At present I can remember few anecdotes of Fletcher of Salton.

'A footman of his desired to be dismissed. "Why do you leave me?" said he—"because, to say the truth, I cannot bear your temper—To be sure I am passionate, but my passion is no sooner on, than it is off—Yes, replied the footman, but then, it is no sooner off, than it is on."

'I knew him well, said Fletcher to Dr. Pitcairn, he was hereditary Professor of Divinity at Hamburg—*Hereditary Professor of Divinity*, exclaimed the Doctor, what nonsense!—Doctor, what think you of an hereditary King?

'If I mistake not I have somewhere recorded that Fletcher said "Toland is a bigotted atheist."

'It was said of Fletcher that he wished for a republic, in which he himself might be King.

'I can make a pair of shoes for your feet, said Mitchel the famous shoe maker, but I defy all the shoemakers in Scotland to make a pair for your head.

'Like the elder Cato, and the elder Scaliger, he went late to the study of Greek.

'He had acquired such knowledge of Italian as to be able to compose a treatise in that language. Prince Eugene spoke to him in Italian, but Fletcher was not able to answer—*yes* or *no*.

'I ever am, *&c.*'

The whole account of Robert, first Earl of Ancram, is interesting; and, as it furnishes a fair specimen of the biographical part of this work, we shall present it entire to our readers. The portrait exhibits a countenance of great character.

'This nobleman, descended of Sir Andrew Ker, of Fernyhirst, in Roxburghshire, and direct male lineal ancestor of the present Lothian family, was first, Gentleman, and afterwards, Lord of the Bedchamber to Charles I. who advanced him in 1633, to the dignity of the peerage by the titles of Earl of Ancram, Lord Ker of Nisbet, Long Newton, and Dolphington *.

'Lord Clarendon says of King Charles, "that he saw and observed men long before he received them about his person;" and as other historians, less partial to this monarch agree, however much they have differed respecting his kingly virtues, that he was eminent for every quality and endowment which adorns the sphere of private life; his affection and favors are surely to be considered as honorable

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'* Vide Douglas's Peerage.

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to those on whom they were conferred: the Earl of Ancram, it is unquestionable, with but a short intermission *, enjoyed both for a long series of years; and of this distinction he has not only shewed himself worthy by his probity, his taste † and accomplishments, but also by his faithful adherence to Charles in every vicissitude of fortune throughout his disastrous reign; an adherence, by which upon the death of this unfortunate prince, it appeared that he had become so obnoxious to the prevailing party as to be under the necessity of retiring into Holland, where he experienced many hardships ‡, and died,

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' * It is evident from two letters written to this Earl, by the celebrated Drummond of Hawthornden, that he had lost, for a time, the favor of the court, but on what account, the letters make no mention; the probable conjecture is that it happened in consequence of a quarrel, related by Crawford in his book of officers, which ended in a duel between him and a Mr. Charles Maxwell, wherein the latter fell, which obliged the Earl to leave the kingdom. It was very likely during his exile on this account, that he indulged his taste for paintings by collecting pictures, and brought with him, on his return to England, those with which, according to Vertue, he afterwards presented his royal master.'

' † We have taken occasion, in the preceding note, to mention his taste for paintings; he had beside, a turn for poetry, which is displayed in a beautiful little sonnet, addressed to his friend William Drummond, and which, on account of its being so little known, is here transcribed.

' Sonnet in praise of a solitary Life.

" Sweet solitary life, lovely dumb joy,
That need'st no warnings how to grow more wise
By other men's mishaps, nor the annoy,
Which from sore wrongs done to one's self doth rise.
The morning's second mansion, Truth's first friend,
Never acquainted with the world's vain broils;
Where the whole day to our own use we spend,
And our dear time no fierce ambition spoils.
Most happy state that never tak'st revenge
For injuries received, nor do'st fear
The court's great earthquake, the griev'd truth of change:
Nor none of Falshood's savory Lies dost hear,
Nor know'st Hope's sweet disease, that charms our sense,
Nor it's sad cure, dear bought Experience."

' It also appears from the letter which accompanied this sonnet, that he had written several others.

' ‡ Not only himself but his wife and children, whom he left behind in England, were oftentimes in great distress and indigence. In a letter extant of Lady Ancram's to William Earl of Lothian, she writes, " I think I need not tell you of my affliction, your father being banished, and all our means taken from us ever since the King's

died, before the restoration, at a very advanced age. He was twice married, first to Elizabeth, daughter of ——— Murray of Blackbarony, by whom he had a son, William, afterwards Earl of Lothian; secondly to Lady Anne Stanley, daughter of William 6th Earl of Derby, and sister to James 7th Earl of that name, who suffered at Bolton for assisting Charles II.; by her he left a son, Charles, who succeeded him as Earl of Ancram, and four daughters.

'This portrait of Lord Ancram is from a painting at Newbottle Abbey, done in Holland when he was eighty years of age, but by what master is not known; it possesses, however, great merit, and is extremely interesting from the impression it gives of that mildness and resignation, which under every material event of his life, particularly marked the Earl's Character.

'The drawings for this and the preceding engraving were taken by Mr. James Nixon, Royal Associate, now in Edinburgh, and obligingly given to the Editor of this work by the Earl of Ancram.'

Mr. P. concludes his preface with observing that, 'if encouragement should arise, another volume of this size might contain the most curious of the remaining portraits; and beyond that extent, materials could hardly be found.'—We hope that the work will meet with the patronage of the public, as the nature of it is interesting in no common degree, and the engravings are generally well executed. We would recommend it to the author, however, to be more detailed in his narrative in a future volume: perhaps the plan adopted by Dr. Birch, in the work before mentioned, might in the present instance be pursued with advantage; it being sufficiently circumstantial to gratify curiosity, and not so minute as to occasion fatigue in the perusal.

The abrupt beginning of the Life of Knox,

'Who has not heard of John Knox?'—

naturally reminded us of Armstrong's Ballad

"*Is there ever a man in all Scotland?*" &c.

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death, that I have not been able to afford him the least relief, that if it had not bine for some that were meere strangers to us, and did compassionate my sad condition by sometimes furnishing us with meate and fyer, I and my children had starved; and that which forceth me to make you so much a sharer in our calamities, as to acquaint you with them, is by reason of many sad letters, which I get weekly from my Lord your father of his great wants, and the disagreeing of the place where he is with his health and age." And towards the end of her letter, she adds "I must deal plainly with you, I and my children have bine several days that we have had neither bread, meete, nor drink, or knowledge or credit where to helpe ourselves."

S.R.

ART. III. *An Account of the Proceedings of the Acting Governors of the House of Industry in Dublin*, for Two Years. Annexed to their Petition to the Hon. the House of Commons of Ireland in the Session of 1798. 8vo. pp. 68. 1s. Dublin, printed; London, reprinted for Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THE interests and management of the poor are subjects entitled to consideration, not less from motives of prudence than of charity; and at no former period have they undergone more attentive investigation than has of late years been bestowed on them. In public establishments for the relief of distress, the greatest discouragement has been experienced from the difficulty of discovering adequate means to guard against peculation, whether in embezzlement or in misapplication. Another object of nearly equal difficulty, and of superior importance, is the prevention, or rather the cure, of idleness: by methods not coercive, but such as excite and encourage a spirit of industry; without which, habits of useful labour cannot be established. These objects, experience has abundantly proved, will not be attained until the opulent shall cease to content themselves with contributing merely their pecuniary assistance. It appears to us one of the most blameable neglects in our police, that the management of concerns, which necessarily must have so much influence on the moral character as well as on the comforts of so great a portion of the people, is scarcely ever consigned to those whose circumstances and stations in life place them at a distance from temptation; except when, occasionally, men of such description voluntarily step forwards. Instead of such uncertain arrangement, if all householders, whose assessment to the poor's rates exceeded a certain quantum, were required to undertake in rotation the offices of inspection and management; and no exemptions were allowed without sufficient reason, or subjecting to the payment of a considerable increased rate; the portion of integrity and intelligence, which would then be applied to the foregoing purposes, could not fail of producing important public benefits.

The present account of the management of the House of Industry in Dublin well illustrates the advantage to be derived from the personal assistance of independent and informed men. In the article of expence, it appears that, previously to the appointment of the acting Governors, (*elected* on the 19th of June 1797,) the average expence of maintenance, with other incidental charges in relieving the poor, was at the rate of 7l. 1s. 1d. per head per annum:—That, in the first half year of the new direction, ending at Christmas 1797, the average expence for the same purposes was at the rate of 5l. 4s. 11d.

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per head per annum;—and, from December 25th, 1797, to December 25th, 1798, (the average number in the house during that period being 1587,) the charges of maintenance, with the incidental expences, were at the rate of 41. 15s. 3d. per head. This great saving of expence was principally effected by a reform in the dietary of the house, 'which underwent a strict examination; when it was discovered, that, from the quality of the food, the mode of distribution, the fraud and peculation of the officers, the expence was enormous.'—'To the mode of distributing the different articles of provision from the steward's stores to the several offices, there had hitherto been no check. They therefore established the following regulation: the head porter every morning at an early hour returns to the secretary the number to be provided with food for the day; the secretary calculates the quantity necessary to be issued from the stores, and the several officers acknowlege the receipt in pass-books, which are compared by the Board once a week with the steward's book.' This certainly was a material regulation. We have known similar rules observed in cases in which it has been necessary to cook, in one common boiler, provisions for a large number of people; with the additional precautions of making public the numbers to be fed, and the quantity of provisions to be issued, and causing two of the people to attend at the steward's office to see that the right quantity was issued, and afterward to see it safely delivered into the cook-room. Occasionally, likewise, an inspection was made into the weights and measures. In no case, are such vigilant cautions more necessary than in institutions for the maintenance of the poor.

'It having been found (we are here told) that numbers were induced to enter the house, from the certainty of receiving gratuitous support, superior to what their labour elsewhere would have procured them, the diet was reduced to that standard by which the industrious labourer can subsist in his own habitation at the lowest rate of wages.' With this practice of economy, it is satisfactory to find that the health of the poor did not suffer by the alterations; that, in the statement of the mortality, there appears a very great decrease after the new regulations were put in execution; and that 'notwithstanding the increased price of provisions, and several other necessary articles, the estimates for subsistence were not exceeded, nor the comforts of the poor abridged.'

One of the great excellencies in this Establishment is its being (as expressed in the petition) 'supplementary to every other charitable institution;' receiving persons of every description, without any other recommendation than apparent distress. It must likewise be noticed that, to clear the streets of vagrants and beggars, many are sent into the house, and there kept for a term to labour.

'Of

'Of 1644 persons now (November 1797) in the house, 1292 have been admitted at their own desire, any of whom would consider expulsion as a severe punishment.' — 'The doors are open to the distressed of every description without certificate or recommendation, (children not excepted) and all who have not been compelled to enter, are discharged on expressing a wish: facts that cannot be too often stated.'

'The indiscriminate association of the poor must necessarily have been destructive of industry, order, and decency; the first object, therefore, of the acting Governors, was to form them into separate classes, according to their ages, conduct, and abilities. By these means they were enabled to excite industry by emulation, to discriminate between the idle vagrant and the industrious yet distressed manufacturer.' — 'To render this more effectual, each class was placed under the immediate superintendance of one of the Governors, who pledged himself to pay daily attention to that class over which he was to preside, and to report to the Board his observations on their situation. Thus an intimate knowlege was obtained of every person in the institution, their wants were accurately known and immediately redressed.'

Workshops are fitted up in the house, with the requisite accommodations for the labourers; and the Governors have established it as a rule, that those who are capable of labour should be clothed from their own exertions; from which regulation, it appears that they are better provided, and more careful of their clothing, than when they conceived that their right to clothes arose from nakedness. Proper persons are engaged (many of whom are found in the house) to instruct the children in trades; to whom they are apprenticed for seven years, the Board reserving the power of assigning over their indentures, which is done when tradesmen of good character make application. The children are likewise instructed in the principles of religion, in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and are, every Sunday, examined by some of the Governors.

Among the employments taught to the female children, is hosiery:

'A manufacture, (says the account) which, though extremely well adapted to females, has not hitherto been attempted by them in this country; and the Board cannot omit this opportunity of stating their opinion, that the employing females in this manufacture, and in others of a like kind, wherein an expert hand is more requisite than masculine strength, merits every possible encouragement from the Legislature and the public.' — 'The usurpation of the male sex, in many departments of industry formerly occupied by females, having deprived of support a very considerable number of the latter class.'

We trust that our readers will not complain, if our remarks on a subject of such general importance are extended beyond the usual limits. In many workhouses, we believe

particularly in some of those in London, industry meets with great discouragement. We have been informed that poor women, employed there in making shirts, have been paid not more than a penny for each shirt made; and for other work not in greater proportion. In the former management of the Dublin House of Industry, the poor received one-sixth part of the produce of their labour; at present, they are allowed two-thirds, the rest being reserved to pay the expence of machinery and superintendance.

It is not an easy matter to determine what portion of their labour it may be proper to with-hold from the poor, in houses established for their relief and support. The benefit which they derive from their labour is the greatest encouragement to be industrious; yet it appears obvious that, if they had the free disposal of the whole, clear of all deduction, it might be a temptation to many to remain burthensome to the house, who were capable of maintaining themselves without assistance. Whatever deductions are made, it might be highly useful that an account of them should be publicly given to the labourer, and of the purposes to which they would be applied. This publicity would assist in guarding against frauds; and the knowlege that the portion of his labour, which he did not receive himself, would be faithfully applied to beneficial purposes, would be a credit and an encouragement to the labourer.

In the tables of the expences of the establishment, we find that the house is provided with two clergymen, one of the Protestant, and one of the Roman Catholic religion, at equal salaries. Besides an Infirmary, a house, detached from all other buildings, is assigned exclusively to fevers.

With so many excellent regulations, and under such superior management, we sincerely join in the hope expressed by the Governors, that the House of Industry in Dublin will become a model for other similar institutions throughout Europe:—if it should be deemed adviseable to continue such establishments. Of their real propriety and advantages, we have at times expressed our doubts, and particularly on a late occasion:—See M. R. for December, p. 397, &c. See also some remarks on this subject in the course of the article immediately following this, in speaking of Mr. Kent's view of the agriculture of the county of Norfolk.

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ART. IV. *A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Kent*; with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement; from the original Report transmitted to the Board; with additional Remarks of several respectable Country Gentlemen and Farmers. By John Boys, of Betshanger, Farmer. 8vo. pp. 206. 4s. sewed. Nicol. 1796.

ART. V. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Norfolk*, &c. By Nathaniel Kent, of Fulham, Middlesex. 8vo. pp. 236. 5s. Boards. Nicol. 1796.

ART. VI. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Stafford*, &c. By W. Pitt, of Pendeford, near Wolverhampton. 8vo. pp. 241. 5s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1796.

FINDING these agricultural reports in our arrear list, we have taken the liberty of putting them together; not from any disrespect to either of the reporters, but in order at once to discharge obligations which have remained too long unpaid. The gentlemen who have here undertaken to exhibit views of these counties appear to be intelligent men, capable of executing the work assigned to them; and we cannot but deem it highly honorable to the kingdom at large, that so many men should be found in it who are qualified to assist the Board of Agriculture in accomplishing the important object of its institution.—As these reports are executed on a similar plan, it may not be unacceptable to our readers to blend their several statements; and the intelligence which they convey may be more amusing, and more valuable, by being thus arranged and compared. Indeed, a very useful and instructive publication may easily be made, by judiciously epitomizing the county views. Such a work would exhibit, in a very narrow compass, the population, wealth, and resources of the kingdom. It is not to be supposed that perfect accuracy will be obtained at first: but, by the establishment of a system of inquiry respecting agriculture, and the several branches of political economy, errors will gradually be corrected, and the truth be more completely ascertained. Mr. Boys, Mr. Kent, and Mr. Pitt, (whom we here exhibit as no mean agricultural triumvirate,) have no doubt been diligent in collecting and faithful in recording facts, as they appeared to them in the course of their respective surveys: but it is not to be supposed that, in researches so extensive and various, nothing should want correction. Under the head of population, it is difficult to be accurate: but authors who venture to state the population of a county should particularly explain their mode of calculation, and should take some pains to verify it by the actual enumeration of the people in certain districts. Could this be done in every parish through-

out the kingdom, we should probably find the number of the inhabitants of Great Britain considerably greater than it is commonly supposed to be; and we ground this conjecture on the facility with which we have raised and recruited our immense fleets and armies during a war of singular exertion. This, however, is not a place for discussing this topic; and we shall take, with little or no comment, the reports of the gentlemen before us on this and other matters: leaving the business of correction to those who have opportunity and leisure for performing it.

Kent is stated by Mr. Boys to contain 1400 square miles, or 896,000 statute acres.

Norfolk is stated by Mr. Kent to contain 1710 square miles, or 1,094,400 statute acres.

Staffordshire is stated by Mr. Pitt to contain 1220 square miles, or 780,800 statute acres.

The population of Kent is given at 200,000.

The population of Norfolk is given at 220,000.

The population of Staffordshire is given at 250,000.

Mr. Boys averages the rental of Kent at 15*s.* per acre, amounting to 672,000*l.*

Mr. Kent gives the same average for Norfolk, making its rental to be 770,400*l.*

Mr. Pitt estimates the annual rental of Staffordshire at 600,000*l.*

In Kent, the whole extent of the commons is said to be 20,000 acres.

Norfolk is said to have of unimproved commons 80,000 acres.

Staffordshire, by Mr. Pitt's account, must contain of wastes more than 150,000 acres.

All these gentlemen agree in the expediency of a general inclosure act to forward the improvement of our waste lands: but one of them (Mr. Boys) confesses that there is a great quantity of poor land, which would require as much money to bring it to the utmost state of improvement, as would purchase the fee simple of it.

On the question of the best size of farms, there is not the same unanimity. It is maintained by the last-mentioned reporter, that large farms tend to lower the price of provisions; while the author of the Staffordshire survey is of opinion that there should be farms of all sizes; and Mr. Kent says, 'if great farms only are to be encouraged, which seems to be the aim of some, husbandmen of small capitals will be effectually cut off from the common means of raising themselves in life. Population will likewise receive an irrecoverable blow from the suppression of *those little hives of plenty*.'

Judicious

Judicious remarks are made by each of these gentlemen on the state of the poor, and on the poor laws: but we particularly approve those of Mr. Kent. He wishes to have the poor considered as a part of the community, and to interest them in the general welfare. Instead of massing and congregating the poor in one huge building, Mr. Kent advises cottage accommodations for them:

'There is one thing which is incumbent on all great farmers to do, and that is to provide comfortable cottages for two or three of their most industrious labourers, and to lay two or three acres of grass land to each, to enable such labourer to keep a cow and a pig:—such a man is always a faithful servant to the farmer who employs him: he has a stake in the common interest of the country, and is never prompt to riot, in times of sedition, like the man who has nothing to lose; on the contrary, he is a strong link in the chain of national security *.'

Though one of the writers before us controverts the propriety of universally assigning to the cottage the quantity of land here mentioned, we think that there should be some cottages so circumstanced, as a reward to honest industry; and that it is wise, in a political view, that even the poorest should have some portion of property. Mr. Kent very justly supposes that the astonishing rise of the poor-rates originates in the increased price of provisions beyond the proportional augmentation in the price of labour; he recommends to magistrates the perusal of Fleetwood's *Chronicon Preciosum*; and he concludes his report with the following advice, which does equal credit to his head and heart:

'Every farmer I would advise, to consider the labourer not as an incumbrance upon him, but as essentially necessary to carry on his business, without whom he could not live or support his own family; but the present weak policy has arisen from a misconception of the utility and real importance of the labourer to society. No farmer will slight his horse, or give him the less hay or corn for its being dear; if he did, he would expect the animal to decline in condition.—Why then should the human servant be less attended to? He is, undoubtedly, the first sinew that puts the labour of the farm in motion, and without which it cannot be carried on: if, therefore, his full earnings will not keep him, it is a duty incumbent on his master to let him have a sufficiency of corn, for his own family, at the same rate or price by which he is paid for his labour, and not to suffer the spirit of a poor man, of this description, to be broken.

'The force of this argument is grounded in my heart, and I hope it will strike those with conviction, who have power, in their different stations, to administer the comfort I recommend—and that no dispassionate person will blame me, for thus standing forth—the steady friend of the helpless.'

* See other remarks on this subject, Rev. December, p. 397, &c.

On

On the use of *Oxen* in husbandry, we here observe some diversity of opinion. Mr. Pitt informs us that, in the county of Stafford, 'oxen used to be employed; but, as a more extended and improved cultivation has taken place, and the price of human labour has increased,' (a material matter to be taken into the account,) 'they have given way to horses.' Mr. Kent recommends the use of Oxen in preference to horses; remarking that 'in most instances they are nearly equal to horses, and, in their support, they are full thirty per cent. cheaper.' Still, however, he admits that there is a prejudice against them in Norfolk; and that only a few gentlemen-farmers use them: but he hopes that this prejudice will gradually be removed.

The subject of *Fallowing* is not contemplated by each of these writers in the same light. Mr. Kent would explode it altogether; while Mr. Boys contends that, in the clayey and stiff soils, a well made summer-fallow is certainly requisite. If Mr. Kent's observations be restricted to the sandy or sandy-loam soils of Norfolk, they are very proper: but there are adhesive soils which cannot be broken and pulverized by any mode so well as by summer fallowing.

In these three reports, we find but one mention made of the *Thrashing Machine*; viz. by Mr. Boys, who tells us that the one which he has is the sole machine of which he has heard in the county.

By a comparison of these reports, the reader will perceive the peculiarities and characteristic features of each county.

Kent is distinguished for its hop-grounds, and for the culture of the canary seed in the Isle of Thanet. Its manufactures are trifling, but it has a rich and respectable yeomanry.

Staffordshire is remarkable for its manufactures of various kinds, particularly for its Pottery. More rain falls * on it than on either Kent or Norfolk. It continues to be stocked with all kinds of timber: but it does not grow corn enough for its own consumption.

Norfolk is celebrated not only for its manufactures, but for a most productive cultivation. If it cannot boast of its timber, it may be proud of its grain; which is so abundant, that the four ports of Norfolk export as much as all the rest of England:—but in Norfolk they have no idea of making *bacon*.

These surveys contain, as usual, plans of farm-houses, yards,

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'* Thirty-six inches of rain annually fall in Staffordshire, while from twenty to twenty-one only fall in and about London; so that the climate of this county may be said to incline to wet.'—It is not however so wet as Lancashire, where the rains amount to forty-two inches; and hence by some it has been called the Moab or wash-pot of England.

and

and offices; and views of cattle, and of husbandry implements. Mr. Pitt has inserted in his publication, a botanical catalogue of indigenous plants: which is a valuable addition to the other notices respecting the county which he has undertaken to describe.

Moo-y.

ART. VII. *Tracts on the Nature of Animals and Vegetables.* By Lazaro Spallanzani, R. P. U. P. 8vo. pp. 400. 6s. Boards. Edinburgh, Creech. London, Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THIS translation of some recent tracts, by the Abbate Spallanzani, will be a most acceptable present to those of our philosophical readers who are unacquainted with Italian. To comment on the merits of this illustrious naturalist, or to lament his recent death, would be totally superfluous; by all philosophers were his talents known, and by all will his decease be regretted:—we shall therefore proceed to give some account of the contents of the volume before us.

The first tract contains observations and experiments on the animalcula of different vegetable infusions; and the object of these experiments was to ascertain whether the progress of boiling, long-continued, was destructive to the animalcula contained in the infusions of vegetable substances. The event of the trials is thus summarily given:

'Thus, it clearly results, that long boiling the seed infusions, does not prevent the production of animalcula. To explain why the infusions boiled for the shortest time have the fewest animalcula, I may observe: That animalcula should appear in infusions, it is necessary the substances infused, sensibly begin to dissolve; for, as this dissolution is effected, or at least for a certain time, the number of animalcula augments. Seeds of plants, boiled for a shorter time, are, for a shorter period, encompassed and penetrated by the dissolving power of the fire; consequently, when put to macerate, will not be so soon decomposed.'

On extending the experiment, it appeared that animalcula might be produced even after the seeds had been roasted, and ground like coffee:

'Further, I subjected vegetable seeds to the most intense heat, the heat of burning coals, and the flame from a blowpipe. I exposed the seeds in an iron plate upon coals. When converted to cinders, I reduced them to powder, and made as many infusions as there were kinds of seed. The cinders from the blowpipe were extremely dry and hard. I could scarcely believe my eyes, when I saw animalcula in these infusions.'

The next set of experiments was made to ascertain the effect of boiling on the animalcula, when the infusions were

enclosed in vessels hermetically sealed. It was strikingly fatal:

'I thence concluded, that the heat of boiling water for half a minute, was fatal to all animalcula of the largest kind; even to the middle-sized, and the smallest, of those which I shall term animalcula of the higher class, to use the energetic expression of M. Bonnet; while the heat of two minutes did not affect those I shall place in the lower class.'

Not satisfied with this general result, the author proceeded to determine the particular degree of heat which is destructive to the animalcula:

'We know, that the heat of boiling water is about 212°. These infusions were of this heat at least, as appeared by the marks they exhibited of ebullition, the whole time the surrounding water boiled. Philosophers know, that water, boiled in a close vessel, acquires a greater degree of heat, than when boiled in an open. To know how much less than half a minute the boiling might be abridged, and animalcula of the higher class yet exist, I made use of a second-pendulum, and immersed the vessels in boiling water for a given number of seconds, beginning with 29. In a word, boiling for a single second prevented their existence; and I could only employ a degree of heat less than that of boiling water; for example, 209, 207, 205, 203°, descending to a degree which would not injure their production.

'At a medium of 11°, I descended from 200, to 189, 178, 167°. Thus, I had four classes of experiments, corresponding to the numbers 200, 189, 178, 167. In each class, were nine species of seeds, which made thirty-six vessels. After the time necessary for the production of animalcula, I broke the hermetical seals, but saw none of the higher class at 167°. I continued this retrograde motion by 11°, and came to 155 and 110°; so that I had five classes of infusions, and forty-five vessels to examine. Not a single animalcule was seen of the higher class, in vessels hermetically sealed, and exposed to the moderate heat of 113°. This was during the middle of April: the thermometer in the shade stood at 88°. I took eighteen vessels; nine had been exposed to 99° of heat, and nine to 88°. No animalcula of the higher class were produced in the former; but I found them in the latter. In each vessel, the quantity and kind of animalcula, as in vessels not subjected to heat. The degree of heat fatal to them, was 92°.

'Animalcula of the lower class, exist in sealed vessels exposed to the heat of 212°; while those of the higher class hardly appear at 92°: But, when produced, the same intensity of heat that is fatal to the one, also deprives the other of life; and animalcula of the higher, as well as of the lower class, perish at 106°, or at most at 108°.'

From farther trials, it appeared that the eggs of the animals, which were exposed to heat, withstood it better than the animals

animals themselves. The same observation applies to plants and their seeds.

The author afterward subjected animalcula to the action of freezing.

'During winter, I subjected the animalcula to new experiments. While the infusions preserved their fluidity, there was no particle of ice observed; which was occasioned by the quantity of vegetable oil the infusions contained, which secured them against freezing. Notwithstanding the cold killed the animalcula of several infusions, there were some more robust species that supported it. I took the advantage of a very cold day; and, although the thermometer fell to 13° under the freezing point, and the infusions were covered with ice; upon breaking it, and presenting some minute portions to the microscope, I found living animalcula in the parts not completely congealed. They were immured in little grottoes of ice. In those portions absolutely frozen, the animalcula were dead. They did not revive upon melting the ice. The rest retained their vivacity in the parts of the fluid not yet congealed *. I could not decide whether the animalcula perish, because the cold has destroyed them, or because the infusions have lost their fluidity. It is a fact acknowledged by philosophers, that water does not lose its fluidity at 20, or even 22° below freezing, when at perfect rest; which may be attained by inclusion in a close vessel, and removal from external motion. In this way, the animalcula survived, although they suffered cold almost 20° below zero, in water not frozen. They swam about but with a slower motion than usual, while the thermometer stood at 18° below the freezing point. This was the greatest degree they could support, as they died at 20°, although the water was not frozen, but was beginning to be covered by a thin crust. Two species survived; and I may perhaps, or even without perhaps, say, they would have supported a more intense cold, had I been able to keep the water longer fluid.'

Many curious observations occur, on the torpid state of some animals during winter; and M. Spallanzani corrects the common opinion that they are cold-blooded: he admits that their blood is refrigerated *after* they become lethargic: but he found, by experiment, that it was warm before they passed into the torpid state, which he thinks may at any time be produced by cold.

'I resolved to make new experiments, and begun with frogs. I buried in snow several that were extremely, but equally lively: one number was untouched, another deprived of the whole blood. I even endeavoured to empty the heart and principal vessels completely. In eight or ten minutes I took some from the snow. Those which

'* Mr. Muller of Copenhagen has discovered some species of animalcula which survive congelation. I regret that his work did not come to my knowledge until the transcription of my manuscript was finished.'

were, and were not deprived of blood, appeared precisely in the same state, that is, half dead, and not attempting to escape although at liberty. Fifteen minutes afterwards, I took others from the snow: all seemed contracted, motionless, and almost frozen. I returned them to the snow; and in some hours transported them to a warm situation, carefully observing what happened. By little and little, they stretched themselves, opened their eyes, and prepared to escape. This I observed in all, without any difference. I had the curiosity still to bury them in the snow. I saw anew the same phænomena; and I constantly found the results the same, when the experiments were repeated at different seasons of the year. All the tree-frogs, toads, water-newts, whether deprived of blood or not, equally experienced the lethargic slumber, when exposed to cold, but revived with a sufficient degree of heat.'

The slightest shock of electricity proved fatal to all kinds of the animalcula. The odour of camphor, of turpentine, of tobacco, of sulphur, and the application of oleaginous or spirituous liquors, were all destructive of them. The animalcula lived, and performed their functions, for a considerable time, *in vacuo:* but none can support the want of air beyond a month.—In speaking on this subject, the author seems to discredit the stories which have been told, of living animals discovered in the centre of stones or trees:

'I well know there are instances cited, of different animals said to have existed without enjoying the benefit of this element *(air)*; such as, the accounts of frogs found alive in the middle of the hardest substances; of living toads discovered in the centre of large stones, or of entire trees, where the smallest particle of air could not insinuate itself into their retreats. But, those histories are more the object of the admiration, than the belief, of persons who have made any progress in Experimental Philosophy. It is requisite they should be supported by authority; which is most essential, in a case so strange and paradoxical. Until we obtain facts better ascertained, we think ourselves entitled to assert, that there is in nature no known animated being, which can exist without enjoying the advantages presented by air.'

The chapter on the generation of animalcula is extremely curious, but cannot be made intelligible without the engraving. We shall extract one of the most remarkable passages, because it leads to general conclusions on this subject:

'The volvox, like most animalcula, is very transparent, and the internal structure is accurately seen. Some observers have already discovered young in the womb of the mother, extending to the fifth generation. In my long observations upon infusions, I have found two abounding with the volvox; those of hemp-seed, and the tremella. They are also found in the putrid water of dunghills. Those animalcula are at first very small, but grow so large, as to be distinguished by the naked eye. They are of a greenish yellow colour, of a globular figure,

figure, and of a transparent membranaceous substance. In the middle, are included several very minute globes; Fig. 5. pl. 1. These minute globes, when examined with the most powerful magnifiers, appear so many smaller volvoces, which have each their diaphanous membrane, inclosing others still less. I have distinguished the third generation, but never the two others. It is possible they were not visible in those I examined, from their not being of the size or species examined by other naturalists. When all had quitted the mother, the common membrane burst, and begun to dissolve. Meanwhile, the new volvoces contained others, burst, and then dissolved. By isolating them, I saw the thirteenth generation.

'One of the strongest objections made to the system of germs, arises from the great difficulty in conceiving the successive envelopement of animals in animals, and plants in plants. Oftener than once we have found one egg within another; and some osseous part of one fœtus has been found within another fœtus. The butterfly is included in the shell of the chrysalis; and the chrysalis in the skin of the caterpillar. In the seeds of vegetables, are seen the rudiments of plants; and in the root of the hyacinth, the fourth generation has been discovered. The volvox affords a new argument for inclusion. There, we see it to the thirteenth generation; and probably that is not the last.'

In the succeeding chapter, we find an account of a polypus, not accurately described before, which is bell-shaped, and adheres by its long tail to the lentil-root. It multiplies by dividing longitudinally into two: other classes of animalcula multiply by dividing transversely.

'But the most surprising and the most extraordinary multiplication I have seen, is that of some animated globes, which roll like pellets in the infusions of water lentil, and are visible without the microscope. They are externally covered with tumours, formed of several animalcula, situated upon each other, and attempting to escape. Figure a body almost spherical, formed of concentric strata, each of which is an aggregate of animals. The animalcula composing the exterior or first stratum, separate from this sort of sphere: then is the second stratum laid open, which is composed of animalcula, and, by its separating, discovers the third. There are even strata inferior; so that the whole globe is decomposed, from the circumference to the centre. The globe has no other than a rolling motion; but the composing animalcula have the greatest activity. Each globe produces more than an hundred.

'While the strata of the globes decomposed, I seized some animalcula, and isolated them. At first, each did not equal one hundredth part of the globe in size; but in three or four days, every one was as large as the whole. Their motion became slower, in proportion as they increased. When full grown or complete, they rolled with only the precession common to those globes. The furface of the stratum was at first smooth; it became unequal, and loaded with tumours. These tumours were so many distinct animalcula, which,

after the separation, swam in the fluid. The animalcula of the second stratum did the same, likewise those of the successive strata, until the globe was entirely decomposed.'

What a field for contemplation and inquiry is here opened to the philosopher! It seems that these minute inhabitants of our world have not merely life imparted to them, but passions and affections; for the author tells us, (p. 61.) that some of them carry on fierce wars among themselves. How severe a satire on human ambition is this remark!

On making experiments with infusions exposed to the air, and others more or less secluded from it, the author came to the following conclusion:

'The number of animalcula developed, is proportioned to the communication with the external air. The air either conveys the germs to the infusions, or assists the expansion of those already there.'

The *Second Tract* contains observations and experiments on the *vermiculi seminales hominum, animalium aliorumque;* with an examination of the theory of organic molecules. It has been the singular fortune of Leuwenhoeck, that his observations have been discredited chiefly on account of the extravagant conclusions which he drew from them. His facts are now re-established by the present author's experiments; and the fallacy of Buffon's observations is laid open.—The miscellaneous nature of our Review precludes the discussion of this subject, though so curious in itself, and so ably treated by M. Spallanzani.

In the succeeding tract, consisting of experiments and observations on animals and vegetables confined in stagnant air, we are greatly surprized to find the author treating on the causes of death produced by impure air, without any reference to the present theory of respiration. He speaks of atmospheric air as a homogeneous fluid; and he only inquires whether its *elasticity* be impaired by the respiration of animals confined in it. He has drawn a vague inference from his experiments, that the animals are destroyed by a poisonous matter exhaled from their lungs. We are astonished by the unacquaintance with modern chemistry which this essay discloses.

The tract on some singular animals, which may be killed, and afterward revived, is highly curious and interesting. The Professor is here *at home* again. This essay turns chiefly on the properties of the wheel-animal, and the sloth.—The wheel-animals may be killed and revived repeatedly, by keeping them dry, and without sand, and afterward moistening them with water. This process of death and resurrection was carried

carried on successfully eleven times, with the same insect. It is a singular circumstance that their revival cannot be effected without the presence of sand. We shall transcribe the entertaining commencement of the second chapter of this essay:

'The sand of tiles, the mud of ditches, and of marshes, which pass in the vulgar eye for the vilest of matter, are to the philosophic observer a source of wonder, from the singular beings they contain. To ditches and marshes we owe the armed, club, funnel, bulb, and knotted polypus. It is there we find the fresh water worm, the boat worm, and the springing millepede. Those animals have confounded the human mind, and have created a new philosophy. When the sand of tiles does not serve for an abode to wheel-animals, it will not for that reason be less famous or remarkable. An animal, which revives after death, and which, within certain limits, revives as often as we please, is a phænomenon, as incredible as it seems improbable and paradoxical. It confounds the most received ideas of animality: it produces new ideas, and becomes an object no less interesting to the researches of the naturalist, than to the speculations of the metaphysician. But the celebrity of this sand will encrease, when we learn, that it contains other animals, which, like the wheel-animal, possess the property of resurrection; so that we may almost say, all the animals living in sand are destined to be immortal. I have discovered in sand two new species of animals, which I proceed to describe. I lament that their rareness has prevented me from extending my observations as far as I could have wished, or rather as far as the importance of the subject would have required.'

The new animals, of which particular descriptions are given, are the *sloth*, and a minute species of eel; which possess the faculty of reviving after apparent death, like the wheel-animal.

The analogy between animals and vegetables is preserved, M. Spallanzani remarks, in this curious property: for 'many plants spring again after they have perished.' He instances two, the nostoc and the tremella.—He thinks that these facts cannot be explained by supposing that the power of revival depends on simplicity of structure, because other plants and animals, equally simple in their conformation with these, do not possess such a power. He suggests the following explanation:

'In animals which have no heart, it is almost probable, that the principle of their life resides in the irritability of their muscles; which being the case, if the state of animals is such, that the irritable nature of the heart and muscles is destroyed, so as to leave no hope of it being repaired, it is clear that the animal not only dies, but must always remain dead: but if the irritability is such, that, either by nature or art, it may be re-excited, it is certain that the animal should pass from death to life. It will not matter that it remains dead a long time, even for an age. The reader comprehends my idea. When wheel-animals, sloths, and the eels of tiles, are deprived

of water, their irritability is lost, as is evinced by facts, and they die: when other animals have once lost this irritability, they never recover it; but wheel-animals, sloths, eels of tiles, &c. resume at once their original life.'

With every possible respect for the character of this eminent naturalist, we must take the liberty of saying that this is no explanation of the phænomena in question: it is merely an enunciation of the facts, in abstract terms; and the reader who analyses it will perceive that he is only informed that, if irritability * *can* be re-excited, under certain circumstances, it *may* be re-excited. *There needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us this, Horatio!*

In the preceding tract, on the origin of the *plantulæ* of mould, the author had taken occasion to discuss, and to confute, the doctrine of spontaneous generation. The microscope shews that the globules, or minute heads of ramose mould, are really mushrooms. The black dust of mould was proved by experiments to be its seed:

'But, does the mould, which springs without being sown, and by the care of nature alone, upon an infinity of substances dispersed here and there, also derive its origin from the dust we may suppose disseminated through the air, and upon terrestrial substances? If natural and artificial mould are of the same species, and if the artificial is produced by the dust of the natural mould, I cannot see why the last should not derive its origin from the same principle, especially since it is demonstrated, that no other part of the mould, as the roots and stalks, aid the reproduction. The hypothesis, supposing that this dust is invisibly scattered through all, and gives existence to a great quantity of natural mould, is one of the most reasonable hypotheses in philosophy. If each head of ripe mould can furnish a million of seeds, as we have seen, and if each spot of mould contains a prodigious number of heads, it is clear, that in some years, the dust should be extremely multiplied; particularly, from its levity and fineness, it may be universally spread.'

The last piece in this volume is a memoir, by the late excellent M. Bonnet, on the re-production of the head of the land-snail, containing some additional details concerning his observations on that curious subject.

The language of the translation of these tracts is often ungrammatical and inelegant, and we have noticed some foreign idioms, and several uncouth turns of expression which fall under the denomination of Scotticisms. On the whole, however, the task is performed in a creditable manner.

Since the appearance of this volume, the public prints have announced the death of its celebrated author. We apprehend

Cr. R.

* *Irritability!* Nothing in physiology wants explanation more than this most mystical and most convenient term.

that

that he had too little of the *Sloth* in his composition, to allow us to hope that he will revive from the sleep from which no man awakes in this world.

ART. VIII. *A Treatise on Febrile Diseases;* including Intermitting, Remitting, and Continued Fevers, Eruptive Fevers, Inflammations, Hæmorrhages, and the Profluvia; in which an attempt is made to present at one view, whatever, in the present state of Medicine, it is requisite for the Physician to know respecting the Symptoms, Causes, and Cure of those Diseases. By Alexander Philips Wilson, M. D. F. R. S. Edinb. Physician to the County Hospital at Winchester, &c. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 682. 9s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

THIS work may be considered as a publication of Dr. Wilson's lectures on the subjects indicated in the copious title-page, and it is offered to students as an ample text-book, the study of which may supersede the necessity of resorting to the more voluminous systematic writers. It necessarily partakes of the defects of compositions thus originating, and thus directed. The diffuse mode of instruction, adapted to the lecture-room, is irksome to the reader; and the great difficulty of combining, in one book of moderate size, a clear representation of the infinite number of facts and opinions scattered through original writers, which has been so often felt, is again demonstrable from the work before us. If, indeed, Dr. Wilson should complete his plan, (which will require, he imagines, four other volumes, of equal size with the present,) we do not conceive that much labour will be saved to the student by perusing them; and we apprehend that Dr. Cullen's first lines, with all their imperfections, will still continue to be preferred as an elementary book.

The introduction is occupied by criticisms on the arrangement of diseases, in Dr. Cullen's Nosology; which will not be univerally interesting. Systems of Nosology are now generally regarded more as guides in reading, for the purpose of particular reference, than as authorities in opinion; and Dr. Cullen's arrangement will be chiefly consulted as a *reasoned* index, by practitioners who are acquainted with books and diseases. If the classification of diseases, without changing the nomenclature, were of any importance, we should certainly object to the author's distribution of some species, particularly that of Erysipelas: but discussions of this kind are totally unprofitable.

Although Dr. Cullen's System is apparently attacked by Dr. Wilson, yet the present Treatise is in reality a diffuse commentary on the "First Lines;" a great part of it, therefore, will be regarded as a repetition of the Professor's work. We acknowlege, however,

however, that Dr. Wilson has exerted great industry in filling up Dr. Cullen's outlines; and we think that his selection of facts has, in general, been judicious; yet the student may sometimes wish that the collection had been less copious. In point of arrangement, Dr. Wilson has not been happy; he has treated of intermittent, before continued fevers; and he has been under the necessity of referring almost every point of importance from the former, to what he means to say on the latter. This inconvenience he seems to have felt so much, that we are surprized that this part of the work was suffered to remain in its present form. There cannot be a stronger proof of improper order, than the impossibility of treating what belongs to a subject under the head assigned to it.

The observations on the cure of intermittents are solid and judicious; the only remark which occurs to us as important, on Dr. Wilson's opinion, respects the use of *hepar sulphuris*, as an antidote to an over-dose of arsenic. We have had occasion to try this remedy, which has been recommended purely from chemical affinity; and we have found that very severe purging was produced by it. Dr. Wilson does not seem to have employed the preparations of arsenic to any considerable extent; otherwise, he would probably have spoken with more confidence of their efficacy and safety, under prudent management:—but his caution, in this respect, is less remarkable, as we find him occupying some pages with a defence of the '*innocence* of Peruvian bark in intermittents': a question which, we believe, no apothecary's boy, in this country, would now require to be elucidated. Discussions of this nature may at this time be properly neglected: since, if the patient be cured, it is no longer inquired whether the cure has been effected according to rule. It may perhaps be of some use to give the younger student an idea of the objections and difficulties which he must expect to encounter from the nurses and old ladies, on his entrance into practice: but the collection of these *Veteres Aviæ*, which would form a curious subject for an intelligent observer, ought to be reserved for the esoteric lecture.

The description of the symptoms of continued fever is accurate, and less spun-out than the section on intermittents. Respecting one symptom, we must differ from Dr. Wilson; he supposes the black fluid, or rather that substance resembling coffee-grounds, which is discharged by stool and vomiting in the fevers of warm climates, and sometimes in those of our own, to be occasioned by a vitiated state of the bile. We have no hesitation in ascribing it to a slow oozing of blood, from the minute vessels in the villous coat of the stomach and intestines. The tar-like stools are so completely similar to those

those which appear in the Meläene, that no doubt can remain respecting the similarity of the diseases. This symptom attends the typhus of this country, in some instances, though rarely; and it is always a fatal appearance.

We doubt, also, whether the author be correct in mentioning bleeding at the nose as a favourable symptom in typhus. We have generally observed that a long and dangerous fever has succeeded this hæmorrhage.

Dr. Wilson's remarks on the disposition of matter in the urine, a subject which has been so much canvassed by medical authors, are new and curious; we shall give them in his own words:

'I had occasion some years ago to make observations on the urine, with a view to determine the modes of life which dispose this fluid to deposit what Scheele calls the lithic acid, which is the same with the brick coloured sediment which appears in the urine of febrile patients.* From these observations it appears, that the red coloured sediment is most copious when, from an acessent diet or a debilitated state of the digestive powers, there is much acidity in the primæ viæ, or when the perspiration is checked, in consequence of which, the acid, which ought to have passed by the skin,† is thrown upon the kidneys.

'It is farther shewn, that if while the perspiration is checked, the action of the kidneys is also debilitated, the acid causing the deposition of this matter from the urine accumulates in the system, and is thrown off by the skin and kidneys when their vigour is restored: and that in proportion as the perspiration is free, the less of this acid passes by urine. Thus the appearance of the lateritious sediment in the urine is merely a symptom of returning health, but generally indicating a less free perspiration than natural.

'The other, the cream-coloured or furfuraceous sediment, which also now and then assumes more or less of a red or rather a pink colour, but has an appearance very different from the former, was found most copious in the urine of those who used an alkalescent diet, or in whom the perspiration was unusually free, so that any acid received into, or generated, in the body, was passed chiefly by the skin.

'This sediment, therefore, like the former, is merely a symptom of returning health, and particularly indicates the renewal of a free secretion by the skin, which in fevers is generally a favourable symptom.

'But whether a favourable symptom or not, it is still attended with the same deposition from the urine. In some fevers terminating fatally there is an unusual tendency to sweat, which only exhausts the strength. In these, the critical deposition of the urine is constantly present, but without bringing relief. This is the case in

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'* An account of these observations was published in 1792.

'† It is ascertained by experiment, in the treatise alluded to, that an acid passes off even by insensible perspiration.'

hectic fever. I have observed this deposition in other cases where there were night sweats without any fever. Nay I have found on repeated trials, that I could at pleasure occasion the appearance of the furfuraceous sediment in the urine of healthy people, by promoting the perspiration by small doses of tartar emetic or Dover's powder. In short, all that we can infer from it in fevers is, that a relaxation of the skin has taken place, that the secretion by this organ is restored. These appearances in the urine therefore, at the favourable termination of fevers, are certainly not the cause, but the consequence, of recovery*.'

On the subject of contagion, the author's observations are sensible and just: but we were disappointed, by finding no mention of the plan of removing patients from infected houses into a fever-hospital, which was attended with so much success during the last plague in Russia, as described by Dr. De Mertens†; and which is said to have proved highly useful in the common typhus, at Chester, Liverpool, and Manchester.

In discussing the proximate cause of fever, the hypotheses of Cullen and Brown are said to be the only opinions worthy of examination. Dr. Cullen's theory is dismissed with a very negligent criticism:—but the system of Brown is minutely and laboriously examined; and, though objections are made to its particular application in some instances, yet Dr. Wilson evidently espouses its general principles. It would be out of place to enter here into a discussion of the merits of the Brunonian System. So far as it contains a description of facts, however disfigured by an affected style and an ambitious use of new words, it may be admitted:—but the most objectionable tendency of Dr. Brown's System is, that it discourages all endeavours to perfect the history of diseases. By establishing an

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' * The following are the only appearances of the urine, if we except those it assumes in consequence of morbid affections of the urinary organs, which can be distinctly marked, namely, the pale urine without cloud or sediment; the pale urine with a light cloud appearing a few hours after it has been passed; the high-coloured urine remaining clear, or having a light cloud formed in it without sediment; the high-coloured urine remaining clear, or having a light cloud formed in it, and depositing usually a considerable time (from 12 to 24 hours) after it has been passed a red chrystalised sediment; the high-coloured urine becoming turbid after it has been passed for a short time, (from one to five or six hours) and depositing a light coloured sometimes reddish sediment, now and then (after the urine has stood for a longer time) mixed with more or less, never with much, of the red chrystalised sediment; and in almost every complaint, as well as in perfect health, the urine occasionally assumes all these appearances. Such is the foundation of the practice of those empirics, who pretend to determine the complaint under which their patient labours by inspecting the urine.'

† See M. R. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 78.

arbitrary arrangement of morbid affections, similar to the degrees of a thermometer, the convert of Dr. Brown is flattered with the hope of determining the nature of diseases, as accurately as the temperature of the atmosphere. Painful must be the disappointment of the young practitioner, who undertakes the treatment of a patient, trusting to such fallacious premises.

In Dr. Wilson's improvement of the Brunonian System, we observe nothing so remarkable as his concession on the subject of stimulants. Whatever acts on the living system is, according to Dr. Brown, a stimulant. The fallacy of this assertion could not escape Dr. Wilson's notice; he therefore exchanges the term stimulant, for the general one of *Agent;* and he divides Agents into *Stimuli* and *Atonics*, which were formerly termed *Sedatives.* We do not perceive, however, that his definition of this class of remedies is very luculent: 'Atonics,' he says, 'are those agents which produce atony.' This appears to be an attempt to bring about a coalition between the Systems of Cullen and Brown; an attempt as hopeless as that of yoking wolves or milking he-goats. Instead of shewing deference to the medical fashion of the day, an appeal ought always to be boldly and impartially made to experience; which may be improved, but which cannot contradict itself.

The view of the treatment of continued fever differs little from that which has been given by Dr. Cullen, though studiously varied in its terms. The only important addition which we have remarked consists in the notice of the effects of cold and tepid bathing, abridged from Dr. Currie's Medical Reports. We do not mention the *sources* of Dr. Wilson's observations, for the purpose of discrediting his work; he has everywhere quoted his authorities with the most perfect candour: but we notice them to account for our passing over many important passages, without criticising them, as they have been already brought before the public in the works of their respective authors. Little variance, indeed, subsists among writers of different opinions respecting the theory of fever, when they come to explain themselves on the practice; if we except the first extravagancies of the Brunonians, in the immense dose of ardent spirits and opium recommended by them at one period.

It is time that medicine should be emancipated, like other parts of natural history, from the bondage of sects; and there never was a more favourable period for its liberation than the present. A spirit of free inquiry, and of attachment to facts in preference to authorities, is daily gaining ground in the profession. If medical men will now *observe*, before they attempt

tempt to *combine* observations; if they will sacrifice the attractions of novelty to the sober love of truth; and above all, if they will consider their individual reputation as subordinate to those great interests of mankind, which are involved in the improvement of medical science; the most important consequences may be expected from the present disposition of the faculty. For this purpose, the occasional publication of critical disquisitions on select subjects would prove extremely useful. It is of the utmost importance to know what part of our original opinions is superseded by recent discoveries; and this cannot be attained without recurring to a fresh examination of what we had formerly learned.—Books written on the plan here adopted by Dr. Wilson are therefore desireable publications, provided they be less diffuse. Life is so short, and we have so many things to learn, that it is incumbent on authors to give their sense in as few words as possible.

One disagreeable reflection must occur to the reader of Dr. Wilson's book; that, in the most frequent of all diseases, which is almost hourly under the notice of physicians, very little improvement has been made in the history of its varieties, concerning which there is still great uncertainty; and that we seem to be as far distant from a true theory of the proximate cause as ever. When we compare this stationary condition of theory, with the improvements in the methods of cure which have taken place within the last fifty years, we shall find abundant reason to set a lower value on system, and a higher on rational experience.

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ART. IX. *Practical Education;* by Maria Edgeworth, and Richard Lovell Edgeworth, F. R. S. M. R. I.

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for September, p.* 72—85.]

IT is perhaps a subject for regret rather than of wonder, that, in a nation in which science of every kind has made such great progress as in this country, so considerable a portion of the period of youth should be devoted to the mere acquisition of a knowlege of greek and latin. We are surely indebted for this circumstance more to the inveteracy of antient usage, than to the conviction that the period of life thus occupied cannot be more profitably spent. While our great public schools continue to have the same object of education as they now have, it is not surprizing that the character of our education should continue to be what it is; and ~~perhaps~~, if a deep and critical acquaintance with the dead languages be as necessary a qualification for a gentleman of the present day, as it was for a scholar who was occupied in clearing away the rubbish

rubbish which surrounded antient learning at its revival, no institutions, probably, are better qualified to impart such attainments, and the time spent in the pursuit is perhaps not to be regretted. It should be remembered, however, that, when these institutions originated, science was in its infancy in this country; the idea of learning was associated solely with a knowlege of these languages; and their acquisition was of necessity the sole or primary object of education:—but now, that the various sciences have unfolded themselves to our view, it will not be absurdly derogating from the importance of classical literature, to say that these sciences have at least an equal claim to our attention, and an equal right to an adequate share of our education. Any investigation, therefore, into the means of either shortening the period allotted to, or of lessening the difficulties attendant on, an attainment of the greek and latin languages, will be interesting and useful.

An inquiry of this nature occupies several pages of the present publication, in the xiiith chapter, which treats on 'GRAMMAR and CLASSICAL LITERATURE.' As the discussion of this subject involves a considerable detail, it is impossible for us to convey any idea of the principles or method pursued by an abridgment or analysis; and we must content ourselves by giving an extract from this chapter.—After having stated it as their opinion that the first principles of grammar may be rendered intelligible and familiar to children by conversation, the authors proceed thus:

'When children have thus by gentle degrees, and by short and clear conversations, been initiated in general grammar, and familiarised to its technical terms, the first page of tremendous Lilly will lose much of its horror. It has been taken for granted, that at the age of which we have been speaking a child can read English tolerably well, and that he has been used to employ a dictionary. He may now proceed to translate from some easy books a few short sentences: the first word will probably be an adverb or conjunction; either of them may readily be found in the Latin dictionary, and the young scholar will exult in having translated one word of Latin; but the next word, a substantive or verb, perhaps will elude his search. Now the grammar may be produced, and something of the various terminations of a noun may be explained. If *musam* be searched for in the dictionary, it cannot be found, but *musa* catches the eye, and with the assistance of the grammar it may be shewn, that the meaning of words may be discovered by the united helps of the dictionary and grammar. After some days patient continuation of this exercise, the use of the grammar, and of its uncouth collection of words and syllables, will be apparent to the pupil: he will perceive that the grammar is a sort of appendix to the dictionary. The grammatical formulæ may then by gentle degrees be committed to memory, and when once got by heart they

they should be assiduously preserved in the recollection. After the preparation which we have recommended, the singular number of a declension will be learnt in a few minutes by a child of ordinary capacity, and after two or three days repetition the plural number may be added. The whole of the first declension should be well fixed in the memory before a second is attempted. During this process, a few words at every lesson may be translated from Latin to English, and such nouns as are of the first declension may be compared with *musa*, and may be declined according to the same form. Tedious as this method may appear, it will in the end be found expeditious. Omitting some of the theoretic or didactic part of the grammar, which should only be read, and which may be explained with care and patience, the whole of the declensions, pronouns, conjugations, the list of prepositions and conjunctions, interjections, some adverbs, the concords, and common rules of syntax, may be comprised with sufficient repetitions in about two or three hundred lessons of ten minutes each: that is to say, ten minutes application of the scholar in the presence of the teacher. A young boy should never be set to learn a lesson by heart when alone. Forty hours! Is this tedious? If you are afraid of losing time, begin a few months earlier; but begin when you will, forty hours is surely no great waste of time: the whole, or even half of this short time, is not spent in the labour of getting jargon by rote; each day some slight advance is made in the knowledge of words, and in the knowledge of their combinations. What we insist upon is, that *nothing should be done to disgust the pupil:* steady perseverance, with uniform gentleness, will induce habit, and nothing should ever interrupt the regular return of the daily lesson. If absence, business, illness, or any other cause, prevent the attendance of the teacher, a substitute must be appointed; the idea of relaxation on Sunday, or a holiday, should never be permitted. In most public seminaries, above one third, in some nearly one half, of the year is permitted to idleness: it is the comparison between severe labour and dissipation that renders learning hateful.'

Chap. XIV. 'GEOGRAPHY and CHRONOLOGY.'—In this short chapter, the authors propose to unite the study of these subjects to that of history; and they recommend the use of technical helps, such as are to be found in Gray's *Memoria Technica*, and such as Priestley's chart of biography.

Chap. XV. 'ARITHMETIC.'—Though the writers enter considerably into detail in this part of their subject, yet, as they do not profess to have discovered any shorter method of teaching this science than what is common, we shall only observe that their chief endeavour is to unfold to their pupils the principles of the science, and the rationale of its rules, while they are learning its technical operations. This answers the double purpose of exercising the reasoning faculty, and rendering the path of instruction smoother and more agreeable.

Chap.

Chap. XVI. 'GEOMETRY.'—We meet with nothing that is either new or particularly worthy of observation in this division of the work.

Chap. XVII. 'MECHANICS.'—This chapter is chiefly occupied by a description of an instrument called a panorganon, invented by the authors for the purpose of explaining to their pupils the effects of the mechanical powers. We find also some sensible observations on the propriety of accustoming children to the use of the technical terms of art and science; and a recommendation to seize every opportunity which may occur in conversation, for explaining to children the meaning of words, and the structure of common domestic implements, as the sure and effectual method of preparing the mind for the acquirement of science.

Chap. XVIII. 'CHEMISTRY.'—Under this head, we find a slight sketch of such experiments as, on account of their simplicity and the facility and security attending their performance, may be executed in teaching children the principles of this science.

Chap. XIX. 'PUBLIC and PRIVATE EDUCATION.'—In discussing the respective advantages of a public and private education, the authors give the preference to the latter. They acknowlege the necessity of public schools; because there must be great numbers of parents in society, who, being occupied in public or professional pursuits, in business, or in trade, have not leisure to educate their children themselves; nor ability to provide a private preceptor. Their principal objections to public seminaries are, that too much time is sacrificed to the study of the learned languages; that too little attention is paid to the general improvement of the understanding, and to the formation of the moral character; that a schoolmaster cannot pay attention to the temper and habits of each of his numerous scholars; and that parents, during that portion of the year which their children spend with them, are not sufficiently solicitous to co-operate with the views of the schoolmaster.—We shall present our readers with an extract, containing a lively picture of the feelings and character of the youth just rushing into the world from the shackles of a public school, contrasted with those of one emerging into life from under the controul of the parent.

'When a common schoolboy bids adieu to that school which he has been taught to consider as a prison, he exults in his escape from books and masters, and from all the moral and intellectual discipline, to which he imagines that it is the peculiar disgrace and misery of childhood to be condemned. He is impatient to be thought a man, but his ideas of the manly character are erroneous, consequently his ambition will only mislead him. From his companions

whilst at school, from his father's acquaintance, and his father's servants, with whom he has been suffered to consort during the vacations, he has collected imperfect notions of life, fashion, and society. These do not mix well in his mind with the examples and precepts of Greek and Roman virtue: a temporary enthusiasm may have been kindled in his soul by the eloquence of antiquity; but, for want of sympathy, this enthusiasm necessarily dies away. His heroes are not the heroes of the present times; the maxims of his sages are not easily introduced into the conversation of the day. At the tea table he now seldom hears even the name of Plato; and he often blushes for not knowing a line from a popular English poet, whilst he could repeat a cento from Horace, Virgil, and Homer; or an antistrophe from Æschylus or Euripides. He feels ashamed to produce the knowledge he has acquired, because he has not learned sufficient address to produce it without pedantry. On his entrance into the world there remains in his mind no grateful, no affectionate, no respectful remembrance of those under whose care he has passed so many years of his life. He has escaped from the restraints imposed by his schoolmaster, and the connexion is dissolved for ever.

'But when a son separates from his father, if he has been well educated, he wishes to continue his own education: the course of his ideas are not suddenly broken; what he has been, joins immediately with what he is to be; his knowledge applies to real life, it is such as he can use in all companies; there is no sudden metamorphosis in any of the objects of his ambition; the boy and man are the same individual. Pleasure will not influence him merely by her name, or by the contrast of her appearance with the rigid discipline of scholastic learning; he will feel the difference between pleasure and happiness, and his early taste for domestic life will remain or return upon his mind. His old precepts and new motives are not at war with each other, his experience will confirm his education, and external circumstances will call forth his latent virtues. When he looks back he can trace the gradual growth of his knowledge; when he looks forward it is with the delightful hope of progressive improvement. A desire in some degree to repay the care, to deserve the esteem, to fulfil the animating phrophecies, or to justify the fond hopes of the parent who has watched over his education, is one of the strongest motives to an ingenuous young man; it is an incentive to exertion in every honorable pursuit. A son who has been judiciously and kindly educated, will feel the value of his father's friendship. The perception that no man can be more entirely interested in every thing that concerns him, the idea that no one more than his father can share in his glory or in his disgrace, will press upon his heart, will rest upon his understanding. Upon these ideas, upon this common family interest, the real strength of the connexion between a father and his son depends. No public preceptor can have the same advantages; his connexion with his pupil is not necessarily formed to last.'

Young men who are designed for the army and navy should never, in the opinion of our authors, be educated in private families:

families: but, whether the child be intended for a public school or for private tuition, they strongly recommend an attention to his early education, on the part of the parent, and on the principles laid down in this publication; because it is in his father's house that the first important lessons, those which decide his future abilities and character, are learned.

Chap. XX. 'FEMALE ACCOMPLISHMENTS, MASTERS, and GOVERNESSES.'—The value of female accomplishments, particularly *music*, *drawing*, and *dancing*, ~~are~~ is duly appreciated in this chapter. In order to shine, and to be distinguished for the possession of these attainments above the rest of the sex, a sacrifice of so much time is demanded, and such a waste of the higher powers of the mind is induced, as no superiority and excellence can compensate. This observation will be found to be an accurate one, if we consider these attainments in any of those points of view in which they are generally supposed to be advantageous: whether we regard them as valuable, because they are the objects of universal admiration; or because they are tickets of admission to fashionable company; or because they are supposed to increase a young lady's chance of a prize in the matrimonial lottery; or because they are resources against *ennui*, and afford continual amusement and innocent occupation.—Their merit in all these respects is canvassed by the present writers with good sense and fair reasoning. Their inutility in promoting the happiness of families and individuals, and the probability of a decline in the public taste for them on account of their becoming common, are displayed with considerable ingenuity. Our readers, however, are not to suppose that an absolute condemnation is passed on any of these accomplishments; it is only the abuse of them that is censured: the authors wish only that they should be considered as amusements and domestic occupations, not as matters of competition and of exhibition; nor yet as the means of attracting temporary admiration.

Such being their opinions as to these acquirements, we are not to wonder that in the character of a *Governess* they are considered as forming but secondary considerations; and that the material points of examination are, 'Whether she possess a sound, discriminating, and enlarged understanding. Whether her mind be free from prejudice; whether she has steadiness of temper to pursue her own plans; and, above all, whether she has that species of integrity which will justify a parent in trusting a child to her care. We shall attend to her conversation, and observe her manners, with scrupulous minuteness.'

We shall take leave of this rational chapter by quoting the following passage on the literary education of females:

'From the study of the learned languages, women by custom, fortunately for them, are exempted: of ancient literature they may, in translations which are acknowledged to be excellent, obtain a sufficient knowledge, without paying too much time and labour for this classic pleasure. Confused notions from fashionable publications, from periodical papers, and comedies, have made their way into common conversation, and thence have assumed an appearance of authority, and have been extremely disadvantageous to female education. Sentiment and ridicule have conspired to represent reason, knowledge, and science, as unsuitable or dangerous to women; yet at the same time wit, and superficial acquirements in literature, have been the object of admiration in society: so that this dangerous inference has been drawn almost without our perceiving its fallacy, that superficial knowledge is more desirable in women than accurate knowledge. This principle must lead to innumerable errors; it must produce continual contradictions in the course of education: instead of making women more reasonable, and less presuming, it will render them at once arrogant and ignorant; full of pretensions, incapable of application, and unfit to hear themselves convinced. Whatever young women learn, let them be taught accurately; let them know ever so little apparently, they will know much if they have learnt that little *well*. A girl who runs through a course of natural history, hears something about chemistry, has been taught something of botany, and who knows but just enough of these to make her fancy that she is well informed, is in a miserable situation, in danger of becoming ridiculous, and insupportably tiresome to men of sense and science. But let a woman know any one thing completely, and she will have sufficient understanding to learn more, and to apply what she has been taught so as to interest men of generosity and genius in her favour. The knowlege of the general principles of any science is very different from superficial knowlege of the science; perhaps, from not attending to this distinction, or from not understanding it, many have failed in female education.'

Chap. XXI. 'MEMORY and INVENTION.'—However disposed the world may be to admire that astonishing species of memory which is able to retain every idea that has once been presented to the mind, and which enables a man to repeat whole volumes of what he has read or heard, there will perhaps be little difference of opinion as to the superior utility of that memory which, though it be not remarkable for its faculty of repetition, has its whole collection of materials so dexterously, orderly, and conveniently arranged, that the mind can instantaneously find what is best suited to its immediate purpose. At a time when it was necessary that a General should remember every soldier's name, or a Demagogue the names of every citizen (vide Plutarch and Quintilian); or when ignorance of the art of printing rendered the memory the chief means of circulating knowlege; it might be necessary to cultivate its strongest retentive powers. In the present day, however, such

such talents are rather objects of admiration than utility, considered with respect to general exertion: for it rarely happens that those men, who are distinguished for an extraordinarily retentive memory, have been celebrated for any original productions of taste or genius. The mind seems to derive no strength, and to receive no nutriment, from the vast load which is heaped upon it. It assimilates nothing to itself. Whatever is received into the memory lies there like food on a disordered stomach, crude and undigested. The Abbé de Longuerue, and the florentine Librarian Magliabechi, are instances of the truth of this assertion: they were both remarkable in their day for their memory and learning: yet the former thought "that two antiquarian books upon Homer, viz. *Antiquates Homericæ*, and *Homeri Gnomologia*, were preferable to Homer himself." He would rather have them, he declared, because with them he had all that was useful in the poet, without being obliged to go through his long stories, which put him to sleep. "As for that madman Ariosto," said he, "I sometimes divert myself with him:"—'He was of opinion that the English have never done any good, since they renounced the study of Greek and Arabic for geometry and physics!!!'—The latter (Magliabechi) has left nothing of his own composition for the instruction of posterity, except an inscription round a medal!—Such are sometimes the effects of a surprising memory and erudition on the taste, judgment, and imagination of the possessor; and such may be its utility to the world!

These and similar observations occur on the subject of a good memory; in the course of which, having enumerated a few of the methods which we employ to assist ourselves in remembering, the authors proceed to consider how the memory should be cultivated. The following passages will best explain their opinion on this subject:

'The mistaken notion, that the memory must be exercised only in books, has been often fatal to the pupils of literary people. We remember best those things which interest us most; which are useful to us in conversation; in our daily business or amusement. So do children. On these things we should exercise their memory. Tell a boy who has lost his top, to remember at such a particular time to put you in mind of it, and if he does, give him another, he will probably remember your requests after this, better than you will yourself. Affectionate children will easily extend their recollective memories in the service of their friends and companions. "Put me in mind to give your friend what he asked for, and I will give it to him if you remember it at the right time."—

'A good memory for business depends upon local, well arranged associations. The man of business makes an artificial memory for himself out of the trivial occurrences of the day, and the hours as they pass recall their respective occupations. Children can acquire

these habits very early in their education; they are eager to give their companions an account of any thing they have seen or heard; their tutors should become their companions, and encourage them by sympathy to address these narrations to them. Children who forget their lessons in chronology, and their pence tables, can relate with perfect accuracy any circumstances which have interested themselves. This shews that there is no deficiency in their capacity. Every one, who has had any experience of the pleasure of talking, knows how intimately it is connected with the pleasure of being listened to. The auditors, consequently, possess supreme power over narrative childhood, without using any artifice, by simply shewing attention to well arranged, and well recollected narratives; and ceasing to attend when the young orator's memory and story become confused, he will naturally be excited to arrange his ideas. The order of *time* is the first and easiest principle of association to help the memory. This, till young people acquire the ideas of cause and effect, will be their favourite mode of arrangement. Things that happen at the same time; things that are said, thoughts that have occurred, at the same time, will recur to the mind together. We may observe, that ill educated people continue through life to remember things by this single association; and consequently, there is a heterogeneous collection of ideas in their mind, which have no rational connexion with each other; crowds which have accidentally met, and are forced to live for ever together.'—

'Long before children read fluently for their own amusement, they like to hear others read aloud to them, because they have then the entertainment without the labour. We may exercise their memory by asking for an account of what they have heard. But let them never be required to repeat in the words of the book, or even to preserve the same arrangement; let them speak in words of their own, and arrange their ideas to their own plan; this will exercise at once their judgment, invention, and memory.

'"Try if you can explain to me what I have just been explaining to you," a sensible tutor will frequently say to his pupils; and he will suffer them to explain in a different manner from himself, he will only require them to remember what is essential to the explanation. In such repetitions as these the mind is active, therefore it will strengthen and improve.'—

'Dr. Johnson, who is said to have had an uncommonly good memory, tells us, that when he was a boy, he used, after he had acquired any fresh knowlege from his books, to run and tell it to an old woman of whom he was very fond. This exercise was so agreeable to him, that it imprinted what he read upon his memory.'—

'By these observations we by no means would insinuate, that application to books is unnecessary. We are sensible that accurate knowledge upon any subject cannot be acquired by superficial conversation, that it can be obtained only by patient application. But we mean to point out, that an early taste for literature may be excited in children by conversation, and that their memory should be first cultivated in the manner which will give them the least pain. When there is motive for application, and when habits of industry have been

been gradually acquired, we may securely trust, that our pupils will complete their own education. Nor should we have reason to fear, that those, who have a good memory for all other things, should not be able to retain all that is worth remembering in books. Children should never be praised for merely remembering exactly what they read, they should be praised for selecting with good sense what is best worth their attention, and for applying what they remember to useful purposes.'

The connection between the memory and the invention is very intimate: the latter derives all its materials for combination from the former: they who invent, therefore, exercise the memory with pleasure, from the immediate sense of utility and success. The inventive faculty can be employed not only on important subjects, but it can be exercised in the most trifling circumstances of domestic life:

'Scarcely any family can be so unfortunately situated, that they may not employ the ingenuity of their children without violent exertion, or any grand apparatus. Let us only make use of the circumstances which happen every hour. Children are interested in every thing that is going forward. Building, or planting, or conversation, or reading; they attend to every thing, and from every thing might they with a little assistance obtain instruction. Let their useful curiosity be encouraged; let them make a part of the general society of the family, instead of being treated as if they had neither senses nor understanding. When any thing is to be done, let them be asked to invent the best way of doing it. When they see that their invention becomes immediately useful, they will take pleasure in exerting themselves.'

The remainder of this chapter is chiefly devoted to a few examples of the mode by which the inventive faculty of children was successfully exercised by the authors.

Chap. XXII. 'TASTE and IMAGINATION.'—The writers do not enter into any metaphysical disquisitions concerning these subjects, but content themselves with arranging such observations as are most applicable to practical education:—in the course of which, they shew how the principles of taste may be early taught, without injury to the general understanding; and how the imagination should be prepared for the higher pleasures of eloquence and poetry.

'To educate the taste and the imagination, it is not necessary to surround the heir of an opulent family with masters and connoisseurs. Let him never hear the jargon of amateurs, let him learn the art "not to admire." But in his earliest childhood cultivate his senses with care, that he may be able to see and hear, to feel and understand, for himself. Visible images he will rapidly collect in his memory; but these must be selected, and his first associations must not be trusted to accident. Encourage him to observe with attention all the works of nature, but shew him only the best imitations of art; the first ob-

jects that he contemplates with delight will remain long associated with pleasure in his imagination; you must, therefore, be careful, that these early associations accord with the decisions of those who have determined the national standard of taste. In many instances, taste is governed by arbitrary and variable laws; the fashions of dress, of decoration, of manner, change from day to day; therefore no exclusive prejudices should confine your pupil's understanding. Let him know, as far as we know them, the general principles which govern mankind in their admiration of the sublime and beautiful; but at the same time give him that enlarged toleration of mind, which comprehends the possibility of a taste different from our own. Shew him, and you need not go farther than the Indian skreen, or the Chinese paper in your drawing room, for the illustration, that the sublime and beautiful vary at Pekin, at London, on Westminster-bridge, and on the banks of the Ganges. Let your young pupil look over a collection of gems or of ancient medals; it is necessary that his eye should be early accustomed to Grecian beauty, and to all the classic forms of grace. But do not suffer him to become a bigot, though he may be an enthusiast in his admiration of the antique. Short lessons upon this subject may be conveyed in a few words. If a child sees you look at the bottom of a print for the name of the artist, before you will venture to pronounce upon its merits, he will follow your example, and he will judge by the authority of others, and not by his own taste. If he hears you ask, Who wrote this poem? Who built this palace? Is this a genuine antique? he will ask the same questions before he ventures to be pleased. If he hears you pronounce with emphasis, that such a thing comes from Italy, and therefore must be in good taste, he will take the same compendious method of decision upon the first convenient occasion. He will not trouble himself to examine why utility pleases, or will he analyse his taste, or discover why one proportion or one design pleases him better than another; he will, if by example you teach him prejudice, content himself with repeating the words, proportion, antique, picturesque, &c. without annexing any precise ideas to these words.'

We are sorry that our limits will not allow us to present the readers with more copious extracts from this chapter; in which the authors discover a considerable extent of information, and convey much useful instruction.

We are not disposed to cavil with any nicety about the particular use and application of a word, provided it be uniform and definite: but the application of the term imagination, here observable, appears to us rather vague and uncertain. Instead of confining its meaning to one of the faculties of the human mind, the writers seem to extend it to all; and if this comprehensive sense of the term be accurate, the propriety of their reasoning cannot be disputed: but, as we are disposed to confine its meaning simply to the power of selecting and combining, or forming, images or ideas, we do not exactly feel the propriety of their language in several instances. At page 606, they say, 'with

'with respect to the arts, imagination may be considered practically in two points of view; as it relates to our taste, and as it relates to our talents for the arts.'—Imagination, in our sense of the word, is certainly not essential to a taste for the arts, whatever it may be to a talent for them: for, in the contemplation of a picture, whether conveyed to us through the medium of poetry or through that of painting, the peculiar pleasure which we receive from it does not proceed from our imagination being employed in selecting and combining images, or ideas, but from a mere perception of the harmony and beauty of the images and ideas selected and combined for us by the poet or the painter.

The remainder of this chapter is employed in defining the boundaries between the enthusiasm of genius and its extravagance; and in pointing out some of the precautions that may be used, to prevent the moral defects to which persons of ardent imaginations are often subject.

Chap. XXIII. 'WIT and JUDGMENT.'—We much question whether the following mode of proceeding will ever instil into a child the powers of wit:

'Those who are desirous to make their pupils witty, must sacrifice some portion of their judgment of the acquisition of the talent for wit; they must allow their children to talk frequently at random. Amongst a multitude of hazarded observations, a happy hit is now and then made: for these happy hits children who are to be made wits should be praised; and they must acquire sufficient courage to speak from a cursory view of things; therefore the mistakes they make from superficial examination must not be pointed out to them; their attention must be turned to the comic, rather than to the serious side of objects; they must study the different meanings and powers of words; they should hear witty conversation, read epigrams, and comedies; and in all company they should be exercised before numbers in smart dialogue and repartee.'

In the observations on the method of cultivating the judgment of children, much good sense is discoverable. The first step is to teach them to examine and compare such external objects as are present to the senses:

'Let them compare the size and shape of different objects; let them frequently try what they can lift; what they can reach; at what distance they can see objects; at what distance they can hear sounds: by these exercises they will learn to judge of distances and weight; and they may learn to judge of the solid contents of bodies of different shapes, by comparing the observations of their sense of feeling and of sight. The measure of hollow bodies can be easily taken by pouring liquids into them, and then comparing the quantities of the liquids that fill vessels of different shapes. This is a very simple method of exercising the judgment of children; and, if they are allowed to try these little experiments for themselves, the amusement will fix the facts in their memory, and will associate pleasure

sure with the habits of comparison. Rousseau rewards Emilius with cakes when he judges rightly; success, we think, is a better reward. Rousseau was himself childishly fond of cakes and cream.'

When children begin to argue, care must be taken to make them explain their terms, and abide by them; and, in books and conversation, all bad reasoning must be avoided. They should never be encouraged to argue and quibble for victory.

Chap. XXIV. 'PRUDENCE and ECONOMY.'—The first of these virtues is considered as composed of judgment and resolution. To cultivate this virtue in children, they should be accustomed to choose for themselves in those things which are interesting to them; and whether they have selected well or ill, they should be suffered to abide steadily by their determination. Experience will soon teach them to reflect on and compare the value of the objects committed to their choice.

On the subject of *Economy*, the following observations occur:

'Economy is usually confined to the management of money, but it may be shewn on many other occasions: economy may be exercised in taking care of whatever belongs to us; children should have the care of their own clothes, and if they are negligent of what is in their charge, this negligence should not be repaired by servants or friends, they should feel the real natural consequences of their own neglect, but no other punishment should be inflicted; and they should be left to make their own reflections upon their errors and misfortunes, undisturbed by the reproaches of their friends, or by the prosing moral of a governess or preceptor. We recommend, for we must descend to these trifles, that girls should be supplied with an independent stock of all the little things which are in daily use; housewifes and pocket books well stored with useful implements; and there should be no lending and borrowing amongst children. It will be but just to provide our pupils with convenient places for the preservation and arrangement of their little goods. Order is necessary to economy, and we cannot more certainly create a taste for order, than by shewing early its advantages in practice as well as in theory. The aversion to *old* things should, if possible, be prevented in children; we should not express contempt for *old* things, but we should treat them with increased reverence, and exult in their having arrived under our protection to such a creditable age. "I have had such a hat so long, therefore it does not signify what becomes of it!" is the speech of a *promising* little spendthrift. "I have taken care of my hat, it has lasted so long; and I hope I shall make it last longer," is the exultation of a young economist, in which his prudent friends should sympathise.'—

'Young people who are educated at home should, as much as possible, be educated to take a family interest in all the domestic expences. Parental reserve in money matters is extremely impolitic; as Mr. Locke judiciously observes, that a father, who wraps his affairs up in mystery, and who, "views his son with jealous eyes," as a person

person who is to begin *to live* when he dies, *must* make him an enemy by treating him as such. A frank simplicity and cordial dependence upon the integrity and upon the sympathy of their children, will ensure to parents their disinterested friendship. Ignorance is always more to be dreaded than knowledge.'—

'Before a young man goes into the world, it will be a great advantage to him to have some share in the management of his father's affairs; by laying out money for another person he will acquire habits of care, which will be useful to him afterwards in his own affairs. A father, who is building, or improving grounds, who is carrying on works of any sort, can easily allot some portion of the business to his son, as an exercise for his judgment and prudence. He should hear and see the estimates of workmen, and he should, as soon as he has collected the necessary facts, form estimates of his own, before he hears the calculation of others: this power of estimating will be of great advantage to gentlemen, it will circumscribe their wishes, and it will protect against the low frauds of designing workmen.'

The work closes with a summary chapter, and an appendix containing conversations and anecdotes of children. In concluding our view of it, we sincerely recommend it to the perusal of all parents; as well of those who are aware of the importance of an early attention to the education of their children, since they will receive much useful instruction; as of those who confine their ideas on this subject to scholastic discipline, since it may produce the important conviction in their minds, that the nursery and the parlour are as much the theatres of education as the school or the college.

It is observable that, comprehensive as this performance is, several branches of the subject undergo no particular discussion; such as the inculcation of the principles of chastity in females, of courage in males, &c. and that the topic of religious instruction is resigned wholly, as it should seem, to the tenets and the discretion of the parent. These omissions do not arise from inattention: they are noticed in the preface; and the writers state that they are silent in regard to religion and politics, because they 'have no ambition to gain partisans, not to make proselytes, and because they do not address themselves exclusively to any sect or to any party.' With respect to courage and chastity, they appear to consider those qualities as so inherent and habitual in Britons, that all artificial recommendation of them must be unnecessary.

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ART. X. *The Report of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons, relative to the Establishment of a New Police in the Metropolis, &c. and the Convict Establishment;* containing the Plans proposed for establishing a New Office of Police and Revenue in the Metropolis.—Proposals for a New Mode of employing Convicts.—Plan of the New Building for employing and securing Convicts.—Draft of a Contract between the Lords of the Treasury and Jeremy Bentham, Esq. for the said Purpose.—The Establishment of the Seven Police Offices, their Receipt and Expenditure.—The Establishment, &c. of the Public-Office, Bow-Street.—Together with Observations on the System of transporting Convicts to Botany-Bay, the Expence incurred thereby, and the Maintenance of the Colony. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds, &c. 1799.

THE principal subject to which this report relates is of very momentous and universal concern. With the Police of the Metropolis, every man who resides in it, and the immense numbers who daily crowd thither from the interior of the island, and from foreign countries, are immediately and deeply interested; inasmuch as the safety of their lives, and of their property, must in a great measure depend on the vigilance with which crimes are prevented, or the promptitude with which they are detected and punished. It is therefore with great pleasure that we observe the Legislature seriously engaged in considering a plan for the melioration of the Police of the Capital; which, every man of common observation must acknowlege, has hitherto laboured under some radical defect;—some inadequacy fully to answer the great ends of its institution.

This report is dated June 26, 1798. The committee sat in the preceding session; and in the report which they then presented, they advised either the consolidation of the two offices of Hawkers and Pedlars, and of Hackney Coaches, as being singly inefficient with respect to Police, and at the same time expensive; or that they might both be abolished, and their duties respectively assigned to the Office of Stamps, and to the Magistracy of the metropolis; or lastly, that, if the Hackney Coach Office should be retained as a distinct establishment, a material retrenchment might be made in its expenditure. In this report of 1798, they declare their opinion that much more salutary effects with respect to Police may be derived from a plan to which they refer, drawn up by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole, and which they annex to their discussion, than from any of the schemes which the committee submitted in their report of the last year. They then go on to trace the principal defects of the several branches of Police, as

as they affect the security of the person or the property of the peaceful subject, the morals of the people, and the general finances of the country:—they shew that the existing Police establishments were in want of many of those means of information and powers of action, which are most likely to operate beneficially towards the prevention of crimes; that the principal places of confinement and modes of punishment, so far from effecting the correction and reformation of the criminal, tend to send him forth, after his imprisonment is ended, more confirmed in vice; and, finally, that this erroneous and defective system of police was yet inordinately expensive:—the whole annual disbursements attending the Criminal Police in Great Britain amounting to 234,153 l. 14s. 7½d. Of the expence and the effects of the system of the hulks, they give the most discouraging accounts; representing the annual cost of each convict employed in them, deducting the value of his labour, at 12 l. 13 s. 7 d.; and stating, on the authority of Mr. Colquhoun, (an experienced magistrate,) that "seldom or never is an instance known of an individual discharged from the hulks, who returned to honest industry." As little do the Committee say in favour of transportation to Botany Bay; describing the annual expence of each convict who is sent thither as amounting to the enormous sum of 44 l. 19s. 1 d. which is compensated by no one public benefit, since the convicts who come back to England return but to afflict society with crimes of a still deeper die: while any advantages to be expected from the establishment of a colony, which may ultimately repay its expence by commercial advantages, are far too problematical and distant to be admitted into a sober calculation.

To correct these defects in the system of Police, and to diminish this extravagant expenditure incurred by the present mode of treating convicts, the committee propose two grand remedies. The first is the adoption of the system of Police suggested by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole, and which consists in the establishment of one Great Board of Police Revenue, to be formed by a competent number of commissioners, with such salaries as should engage talents adequate to the situation: this Board to discharge the duties of the present offices of Hawkers and Pedlars, Hackney Coaches, &c.;—two new offices of Police to be established;—and all the offices to possess a concurrent jurisdiction over the whole metropolis, and the counties of Middlesex, Kent, Essex, and Surrey. They advise also, under this head, that the Attorney General shall be empowered to appoint Counsel for the Crown, with moderate salaries, to conduct all criminal prosecutions;—and that all

lodging-houses in the metropolis shall be registered, and the proprietors made to pay a very small fine annually.—These, with some minor regulations, constitute the outline of this plan.

The next measure recommended by the Committee relates to the disposal of convicts:—it is simply Mr. Bentham's plan for employing and reforming that description of persons in solitary confinement. The articles of his agreement with Government, and the outline of his plan for the construction of his *Panopticon*, are subjoined in the appendix —in which the reader will also find several interesting papers respecting the existing police establishments, and the new system proposed by Messrs. Colquhoun and Poole.

Five years have elapsed since Mr. Bentham's plan for employing convicts in solitary confinement was submitted to and approved by Government, but the execution of it has hitherto been delayed principally by the difficulty of finding a proper site for the erection of his Panopticon. That difficulty, we are here informed, is now likely soon to be removed. We rejoice, therefore, at the probability that an idea is shortly to be carried into effect, which promises fairly to contribute not more to diminish a very heavy item of public expence, than to promote essentially the interests of humanity and good order, by reclaiming some of the very worst members of the community, and restoring them to society with manners and habits useful to themselves and their country.

Wall..

Art. XI. *An Essay on the medical Properties of the Digitalis Purpurea*, or Fox-Glove. By John Ferriar, M. D. Physician to the Manchester Infirmary, Dispensary, Lunatic-Hospital, and Asylum. 12mo. pp. 66. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

The leaf of the Purple Fox-Glove constitutes a more antient remedy than is commonly supposed. It was one of the articles of the Materia Medica of the *Pharmacopœia Londinensis*, in the different editions of that work in the last century; it was inserted also in the impression published in 1721; was expunged in that of 1746; and was re-instated in the last edition, viz. that of 1788. Yet it is well known to physicians of twenty years' experience, that the Fox-Glove was generally considered as a new remedy when it began to be administered about the year 1785 in London. The revival of the medicine of late years took place at Birmingham, as we have been told on good authority, first by Dr. Ash: but the most certain document of its being brought again to light is in the judicious publication of Dr. Withering *. It is equally well known

* "Account of the Fox-Glove." See M. R. vol. lxxiii. p. 369.

that

that the temporary efficacy of the drug, in the case of a popular physician, the late Dr. Huck Saunders, in the year 1785, was the chief occasion of its being again received into the London Pharmacopœia of 1788, and of its frequent use by the London physicians: but only as a remedy for dropsy. We find, however, that Dr. Darwin, twenty years ago, and at that time physician at Litchfield, recommended the Digitalis as a remedy not only for dropsy but for pulmonary consumption; see Experiments on mucaginous and purulent Matter.—Cadell. 1780. Other botanical writers (Ray, Parkinson, Salmon, Boerhaave, &c.) speak of the emetic and purgative effects of Fox-Glove, as well as of its efficacy in consumptions, hœmoptöe, epilepsy, and scrophula. It has antiently been used in the form of ointments, and lately Dr. Ferriar has applied the infusion as a lotion in dropsical inflammations. In all likelihood, this virulent medicine fell into discredit and disuse among regular practitioners, from the intolerable nausea and frequently poisonous effects produced by it: but still recipes for it were preserved in private families; and, in provincial situations, the leaves were collected for use, especially in dropsies.

This brief and imperfect history does not serve greatly to encourage us in the farther trials of the deleterious plant in question; seeing that it has already been very extensively tried for a great length of time, without that success which can render us sanguine. Nevertheless, as a remedy in dropsies, the Digitalis has maintained some ground in practice ever since Dr. Withering's publication in 1785: but it is only within these two, or at most three years, that it has been much recommended for consumptions, and some other diseases. Among a number of tracts of the present day on the virtues of *Digitalis*, is the one before us by a respectable practitioner; of which it is our duty now to give a faithful representation.

From the following paragraph in the preface, we have a right to expect good evidence to warrant the author's opinion:

'I have been careful not to over-estimate the powers of Digitalis, and I hope that I have not been mistaken in repeated observations: at present, I regard it as a remedy of the highest class: its exhibition has become as familiar in my practice, as that of Peruvian Bark or Opium, with which it deserves to be ranked, and I give it with as little dread, (though never without caution) as either of those medicines. If I am not greatly deceived, it will be found eminently serviceable in a wide range of diseases; and in the present state of our knowlege, the investigation of its effects promises ample scope for the exercise of skill and ingenuity

It is from the action of the remedy on the arterial system, that Dr. F. expects the most beneficial effects. 'If any man,'

says he, 'had expressed an opinion, a few years ago, that we should discover a medicine capable of reducing the pulse, without danger, from 120 in a minute, to 75 or 80, at the will of the practitioner, he would have been ridiculed as a visionary. Such, however, under proper management, is the power of the Digitalis.' Another ingenious author expresses himself in much more confident terms: "I daily see many patients in pulmonary consumption advancing towards recovery with so firm a pace, that I hope consumption will henceforward be as regularly cured by the Fox-Glove as ague by Peruvian Bark." (Dr. *Beddoes* *.)—Our readers shall now judge of Dr. Ferriar's evidence for the efficacy of the present remedy, in *active hæmorrhage*; in which disease he gives it freely in private and hospital practice

A case is related of *Epistaxis*, and others of *Menorrhagia*. In the latter disease, the discharge stopped on the first dose of Fox-Glove in powder. The true characteristic of the medicine is its reducing the pulse, although it often at the same time increases the urinary secretion. The *rationale* of its action in hæmorrhage is referred to its sedative effect on the arterial system, and to its diuretic power, conjointly.

On the subject of hæmorrhage, from the Nose especially, but also from the uterus, every experienced practitioner must know that the virtues of medicines are rendered equivocal by the discharges spontaneously curing themselves; and we cannot immediately impute the cessation of the discharge to the medicines, without much more extensive and varied trials. Nevertheless, we approve of the Fox-Glove being preserved as a resource, although it is not likely to be ever wanted in epistaxis, and but rarely in menorrhagia.

The author next gives an account of the remedy in question from his experience in the first stages of pulmonary consumption, of the kinds called scrophulous. The chief principle on which the Digitalis was used was, to diminish the impetus of the circulation, which may lead to a suspension of the diseased action. Fox-Glove was also expected to be beneficial, like squill, from its diuretic power; and, in the advanced stages, it was hoped that the hectic fever might be abated by its effects as a sedative. Half a grain at bed-time was given at first, and then gradually increased to two or three grains in a day. The symptoms were removed or abated, in a number of cases: but Dr. F. owns that he was generally disappointed, as the disease broke out again, and with more rapidity in consequence of the transient delay. Yet he considers Digitalis as a valuable remedy, if it should only mitigate the sufferings

* See Rev. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 281.

and

and prolong life: but opium gives great temporary relief, while, by suppressing expectoration, it hurries the patient into his grave.

Dr. Ferriar adds that the Digitalis, in combination with the use of *Ferrum vitriolatum* and myrrh, and also with bark and other tonics, in the *scrophulous consumption*, is very efficacious; while the Digitalis with opium, mucilaginous medicines, and diuretics, may be opposed to the *florid consumption*. It appears, then, that Digitalis has not been found to *cure*, but frequently to *palliate* the symptoms of phthisis.

The author next speaks of this remedy in cases of spasmodic asthma; in which it has been serviceable in conjunction with opium, by suspending the symptoms; as appeared from the return of them when it was omitted.

In coughs, from water in the chest, attended with anasarca of the lower extremities, the Digitalis is asserted to have given more relief than any other medicine.

In palpitations of the heart, this remedy has been found serviceable, when they have depended on the passions; and even in 'organic leesions.'

In dropsies which do not bear purgatives, the Digitalis in half-grain-doses, every 5 to 8 hours, till it alters the pulse, is beneficial: but, if it does not act speedily as a hydragogue or a diuretic, it is useless to persevere in it.

Though unsuccessful alone, we are told that Digitalis becomes efficacious on being joined with calomel and Dover's powder. From a theoretical principle, not from experience, the Digitalis is considered as a valuable remedy in hydrocephalus; in all active inflammations; in gangrene; in croup; and perhaps as an injection in gonorrhœa. In mania, the trial was unsuccessful.

Dr. Percival, in a letter subjoined to this pamphlet, agrees with the author in his experience of the Fox-Glove in dropsies and consumptions. He gives the medicine along with opium and *flores benzoes*, each one grain in the course of a day. What was remarkable, opium in every other form and combination disagreed with a patient, but in this produced no inconvenience.—It is also suggested that Fox-Glove may act in cases of hœmoptöe, in a way analogous to the effect of ipecacuanha, as many years ago prescribed by Dr. Bryan Robinson, of Dublin.

Digitalis is also recommended by Mr. Simmons, to aid in the absorption of Pus in deeply seated abscesses; and, lastly, lotions of infusion of Fox-Glove, in herpetic eruptions, inflammations of the skin, and eruptions of different kinds on the face.

To the result of the experience of the Manchester practitioners, may be added, from other publications, that of Mr. Henry, in favor of the opium with Fox-Glove, in cases of harassing coughs and consumptions; although he says *he never knew a formed phthisis cured by it.* He has used it also in active hæmorrhages, and in acute rheumatism: but then opium, in the dose of a grain, was given with half a grain of Fox-Glove.

Dr. Maclean seems to coincide very nearly with Dr. Ferriar. He says "I have found it (Fox-Glove) a most valuable remedy; and although I trust it will be found by others the most efficacious that has hitherto been resorted to, yet its powers are limited, even in the early stages of consumption." The formula used was the tincture of Digitalis. This remedy he recommends for the hooping cough, asthma, and various other affections of the chest. In the pleurisy, it acted like a charm, and rendered bleeding unnecessary. Epilepsy is another disease in which Digitalis has been serviceable. To produce permanent benefit, the constitution must be kept under its influence for some weeks, by giving gr. i. of the powder, or gtt. xv—xxv. of the tincture, thrice in a day.

Dr. Bree administered the Fox-Glove at Birmingham, in a number of cases of phthisis, without curing, or perhaps being beneficial to any one, as he candidly states.—Dr. Drake * is most sanguine from especially two successful cases of phthisis; and he "is convinced that the Digitalis will be found adequate to the cure of tubercular consumption in even its second stage, and will suspend its progress in almost every instance;—that in catarrh, in hœmoptöe, and in vomica, it will in some measure approach to what is commonly implied by the term Specific."—Dr. Fowler † relates some favorable cases of the treatment of phthisis with the Fox-Glove.

From these additional results, it appears that practitioners by no means agree in their accounts. We may conclude, however, very justifiably, 1. That the evidence of the cure of a real pulmonary consumption by Digitalis is equivocal. 2. That its power of suspending the progress of the disease is equally equivocal. 3. That, in many cases, it disorders the stomach, and the whole constitution. Evidence might be collected of fifty remedies occasionally being followed by a cure of consumption, and frequently by benefit: but they have on subsequent trials been found to fail. However, we do not wish to extinguish inquiry, because we trust that good will in *some* way arise from it.

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* See Review for September last, p. 70. † Ibid. p. 71.

ART. XII. *Biographical Memoirs of the French Revolution.* By John Adolphus, F. S. A. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 500 Pages in each. 16s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

WE are assured by the author of these memoirs, that 'he has made it his business faithfully and diligently to examine both sides of the question; to select, combine, and compare the discordant accounts of the same transaction; to weigh the motives which various parties have assigned for their own conduct and that of their oponents; and to draw such probable results as were warranted by circumstances and authorities.' This is certainly the duty of the historian: but the author of this work lives too near to the political agitations which he undertakes to describe, to be supposed capable of strict impartiality. A French writer says, "*Les évènemens actuels sont comme ces pâtés, qui ne deviennent bons à manger que lorsqu'ils sont refroidis.*" (Mercier.) If in general this principle holds true, it applies with peculiar fitness to the events of the French Revolution; which have convulsed all Europe, affected the recesses of literature, and destroyed the tranquil contemplations of the philosopher in his closet.

Mr. Adolphus has certainly performed his task as well as he could; and we would not impute to him any 'intended error:' but we must suggest to him, and to his readers, the extreme difficulty of now executing such a work as he has undertaken, to the satisfaction of posterity. When parties run high, betraying the most intemperate and sanguinary ferocity, writers on each side will partake of the violence of their adherents; will assert and deny with the boldest effrontery; and will not only give their own colouring to facts, but will often think themselves bound to misrepresent them, and to substitute palpable falsehoods in the room of truth. Hence a multitude of authorities (if they be indeed deserving of such a name) are at hand, ready to be quoted as occasions may serve; and two historians, viewing the same series of events through the medium of different principles, will both be able to fill their margins with references in support of the most jarring statements and opinions. Even in tranquil times, it is difficult to obtain the strict historical truth *.

We are told in Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, (Vol. i. p. 762.) that he said to his son *Horace*, (the late Lord Orford,) who was preparing to read some historical performance, "O! do not read history; for that I know must be

* An ingenious modern writer (Dr. Ferriar) observes "that, in books of good character, we find more facts than can be credited."

 false."

false." Here, no doubt, the statesman spoke from his own experience; and we deem it an anecdote which highly merits the attention of all compilers of history, and of what may be called political biography. *Things as they are* seldom are permitted to pass to the knowlege of the public. The ingenuity and cunning of politicians are not unfrequently employed to conceal or misrepresent facts; and venal writers are easily found, who, at their nod, are ready to construct a tissue of lies to serve the views and purposes of their employers. It requires, therefore, a mind freed from the influence of party, and possessed of uncommon penetration, to detect the various deceptive attempts of the writers of newspapers, journals, gazettes, and pamphlets of the day; and to do justice to the characters of those who "have strutted and fretted their hour on the stage" of public life.

A good historian must possess and will exert a considerable degree of scepticism. He will weigh probability against evidence, and will always discover extreme reluctance in outraging this probability. We think that Mr. Adolphus has not been sufficiently cautious on this head. His abhorrence of the French Revolution, and his condemnation of those who have acted a conspicuous part in it, not only carry him beyond the temperance of the philosophic historian, but induce him to affix credibility to relations which, hereafter, will probably be found to have arisen from the violence of party.

There can be no reason for palliating the horrible crimes and enormities which have been committed during the periods of the French Revolution: but they should be related faithfully, and not with the admission of improbable fictions and extravagant exaggerations.

These memoirs have been compiled with great diligence, and are written with much spirit. Except the section which contains the history of the unfortunate Louis XVI. and of his Queen and family, Mr. Adolphus has given the biography of men black with crimes. As the work is without index or table of contents, we shall give a list of the *dramatis personæ*, that our readers may form an idea of the subjects introduced.

Vol. I. contains Memoirs of Louis XVI. the Queen, Princess Elizabeth, and the Dauphin—of *Jean Silvain Bailly—Benoit—Pierre-Guillaume Benoit—Etienne-Charles de Lomenie de Brienne—Jaques Pierre Brissot—Chabot—Anacharsis Clootz—George Jaques Danton—Camille Desmoulins—Charles François Dumouriez—P. F. N. Fabre d'Eglantine—Thomas Mahé Marquis de Favras—Gobet—Jaques Réné Hebert—E. Henriot.*

Vol. II. contains Memoirs of *Michel Lepelletier de Saint Fargeau—Pierre Manuel—Jean Paul Marat—Gabriel-Honore*

Riquetti Comte de Mirabeau—Jaques Necker—Louis-Philippe-Joseph Duc d'Orléans—Thomas Paine—Jerome Petion—Maximilien Robespierre.

To write the lives of these men is in fact to write the history of the French Revolution, and to discuss its most affecting, atrocious, and bloody details. How Mr. Adolphus has executed this task may be seen by adducing a few specimens.

The following observations are made on the character of Louis XVI.

'The efforts of calumny have been so great and so successful, that the evidence of all his friends, and even the reluctant testimony of his enemies, have been insufficient to rescue his fame from obloquy. The want of firmness and courage is the principal fault, and the one most generally attributed to him; but that seems to result from a judgment formed on subsequent events, and from not duly considering his character in other particulars. The king certainly did not possess that active courage which prompts resistance, and produces magnanimous efforts; but in all his sufferings he displayed an energetic presence of mind, which demonstrated that no exertion was too great for him, had his personal danger been the only obstacle. Could Louis have foreseen the events of the revolution so far as they personally affected him, it is very much to be doubted whether he would have altered his conduct, whether he would not have sacrificed his crown and his life rather than have resorted to measures which had a tendency to involve his country in a war, either civil or foreign. Averse to force, policy could alone prevent the incroachments of faction, and preserve the existence of royalty. The circumstances in which he was placed were so new, that experience, or any judgment formed on the experience of others, could not avail him. Advisers were so numerous, so specious, so contradictory, and so unsuccessful, that it is not wonderful that he is censured by so many writers for not adhering implicitly to their plans. His interrogatory, and his last will, remain undeniable testimonials of the quickness and correctness of his judgment, and the sincerity and goodness of his heart. His conduct on the most trying occasions, particularly the various insurrections which disgraced the latter years of his reign, denote his magnanimity; and his conduct, from the time his trial commenced till the moment which terminated his existence, forms a picture of excellence almost surpassing humanity, and demonstrates the transcendent benefits of that religious purity which takes the sense of shame from premeditated ignominy, which deprives cruelty of its venom, and death of its sting.

'Such was the man whom his ill fate doomed to reign over the French in an age when these virtues insured ruin instead of respect! Such was the man whose murder is still annually celebrated by an inhuman and impious festival.'

It may not be uninteresting to subjoin the writer's character of the Queen:

'Marie Antoinette was sacrificed, to the inhospitable rage of the French nation, in the thirty-eighth year of her age. Of her early

charms, and their premature decline, I have already spoken. The system of calumny pursued against her was so general and so extensive, that to undertake her total exculpation seems almost Quixotism. The principal charges advanced by her enemies are, dilapidation of the finances by her private expences, and by large remittances to her brother the emperor; and matrimonial infidelity. On the subject of her private expences the reader is referred to the preceding pages of this essay. With respect to the sums transmitted to the emperor, many assertions have been made, without the adduction of a single proof written or oral. Had the fact been so, neither kind of proof could have been wanting; the absence of proof supplies the greatest probability, or rather certainty, that the accusation was unfounded. Her explanation on this subject in the course of her interrogatory, is clear, precise, and satisfactory. It was as follows:

"*Observation.*—Not content with dilapidating, in a shocking manner, the finances of France, the fruits of the sweat of the people, for the sake of her pleasures and intrigues, in concert with infamous ministers, she had sent to the emperor thousands of millions to serve against the nation which fostered her.

"*Answer.*—Never:—I know this mean artifice has often been employed to my prejudice; I loved my husband too much to dilapidate the treasure of his country. My brother did not want money from France, and from the same principle which attached me to France, I would not have given him any."

'This unfounded accusation is still further refuted by the contradiction of those from whom it originated, who, while they charged the queen with dilapidations amounting to *thousands of millions*, implicated her in a disgraceful trick, which, if successful, would have produced only one million of livres (43,750 *l.*) to be shared between her and six or seven sharpers.

'The other point of accusation, matrimonial infidelity, is supported by assertions so numerous, that individuals are fearful of expressing doubts on a subject which seems so strongly advanced. The nature of the charge resists the demand of evidence from those who detail it; yet it might be supposed from the number of instances adduced, (for there was hardly a courtier of figure or a traveller of consequence that was not ranked among her favourites,) that some proof would in the course of the revolution have come to light. But even on her trial, though the fact was alledged in the most indecent terms, the proof was not attempted. The circumstantial evidence is decidedly on the other side; for if we lay no stress on the fidelity and courage with which the queen, in the most trying situations, fulfilled the duties of wife and mother, still it appears impossible that she should have been beloved as she was by her husband, had a single fact advanced against her been true, or the suspicion in any wise founded. That she could have conducted her intrigues in private is impossible; because from the moment of her arrival in France to that of her death, she was surrounded with spies and enemies. If the slightest of these accusations had been true, it is not possible that she should have retained to his last hour the warmest affections of a king, who united with the most inflexible virtue, the highest sense of honour, and the greatest hor-

ror

ror of impropriety. Could the queen in such a case have possessed the esteem and affection of the unsullied and uncalumniated princess Elizabeth, so firmly, that on the celebrated twentieth of June, she offered to lose her own life for her protection? The queen's own declaration at the time when she was pleading for her fame, without hope of her life, is remarkable, and convincing from its genuine appearance of candor and virtuous defiance. Speaking of *Trianon*, the supposed seat of her voluptuous revels, she said: "I wish more than any one, *that every thing which took place there may be made public.*"

The following description of the Conciergerie may be somewhat exaggerated: but that it was a scene of horror during the sanguinary reign of Robespierre, all must agree:

'The Conciergerie, during the old government, was a prison for the worst malefactors; with whom it was shared, under the revolutionary government, by those who were arrested as suspected, or had been condemned by the dreadful tribunal, and were awaiting the execution of their sentence. Its cells are subterraneous; over them are shops and walks where the gaiety and profusion of all comers mark in strong colours the contrasted woes and penury of the unfortunate prisoners. Four wickets, at small distances from each other, secured the entrance to this horrible prison, each guarded by wretches taken from the dregs of vulgar brutality; disgusting from vice, filth, and inebriety, and speaking a language peculiar to their occupation, in English called *slang*. Between the two first doors the prisoner was introduced to the turnkey, who, attended by some myrmidons, examined his features, gave orders for his reception, and passed him on through the other wickets. The place in which prisoners were at first lodged, was called the *souricière*, or mouse-trap, a dungeon impervious to the rays of the sun, and exhaling an infectious odour, from the accumulated filth of persons who had previously occupied it. The straw provided for a bed was rotten with damp and filth, and the rats ate the shoes, the clothes, and even the flesh of the unhappy tenant. In this infernal abode they were sometimes left for thirty-six or forty-eight hours, without relief, without communication, without food. They were afterwards transferred to some other chamber, or to a different prison. The distinction of apartments in the Conciergerie was made by the terms *à la pistole*, in the straw, or in the dungeons. The first set were denominated from the monthly price paid for a wretched bed; the others were only distinguished from each other by this, that those in the straw were turned out of their apartments between eight and nine in the morning, and not permitted to re-enter them till about an hour before sun-set, while those in the dungeons were confined all day. The accumulation of prisoners was alike in all; the increasing rigor of the revolutionary government caused arrestations so numerous, that many persons could not find room in the cells, and were obliged to take up their abode in the galleries. The whole prison, from crowd, dirt, want of air, and other incommodities, was so unwholesome, that the confined fell ill and died in such quantities as to exceed credibility.'

Of the Duke of Orleans, we may say that "*nothing in his life became him like the leaving it.*" Mr. A.'s remarks on his unexpected fortitude in meeting death, and on his character, must finish our extracts from these memoirs:

'He was drawn to the *Place de la Revolution* in a cart, with four other persons, who displayed the most dreadful apprehensions; but, on this awful occasion, Orleans exhibited an elevation of mind, which, had it been his portion in more prosperous days, would have insured him happiness and reputation. His being intended for execution on that day was so little known in Paris, that very few people were present when first he ascended the cart, but the rumour soon flew and attracted innumerable gazers. They reproached him in the coarsest terms with all the crimes of his past life, his debaucheries, his assassinations, his perfidy, his vote against the king, every thing memory could suggest. When the cart reached the *palais royal*, with a refinement in cruelty truly Parisian, they made it stop ten minutes, to observe the effect produced by contemplating the scene of his grandeur and debaucheries. On this great day he disappointed the hopes of malevolence; he maintained, during his whole progress, a serenity of countenance and dignity of deportment altogether princely. He looked at the *palais royal*, and read the inscription on the front denoting it to be national property, without the least apparent emotion. The populace, disappointed of their expected entertainment, at length permitted him to proceed. At a small distance from the place of execution he entered into conversation with a priest who was allowed to attend the prisoners, and so continued till he came to the foot of the scaffold, where, without losing for a moment the intrepidity so recently acquired, he submitted to the knife of the guillotine, which terminated his existence in the forty-seventh year of his age, in less than ten months after the murder of the king, which he had occasioned by so much expence, so much intrigue, and so many crimes. His body was thrown without distinction amid the croud of carcases which daily butchery consigned to the burying-ground of St. Mary Magdalen.

'Thus perished this abandoned prince, whom it is now a common mode of speech to call *the monster Egalité*. He subverted a throne without courage or consistency sufficient to avail himself of the result of his own efforts; and squandered an immense fortune with so little judgment, that at his death he scarcely possessed a single friend. He was tacitly excepted, after the fall of Robespierre, from the vote of censure which the *modérés* caused to be passed on the murderers of the other deputies, as no one had integrity or courage enough to propose including him in the list. His name will remain to posterity a perpetual warning to individuals of overgrown property, against the folly of entering into popular conspiracies, and becoming the dupes of men of desperate fortune and daring ambition.'

Sana posteritas will better appreciate the characters of the French Revolutionists than we can at this period; and will develope the sources and springs of that great movement which subverted the French Monarchy, and gave being to republicanism,

anism. At present, the causes assigned by writers do not fully account for the effect. It is impossible, however, to be conducted over this field of blood by a writer of any party, without making a comparison between the French and English character, highly in favour of the latter. Far be from us the event of a Revolution!—but, were such a calamity to befal us, and were the convulsion ever so great, we are confident that it would not be so blackened with horrors and with crimes, as the French Revolution has been; nor would it call forth to public execration such a legion of miscreants.

Moo-y.

ART. XIII. *A Journal of the most remarkable Occurrences that took place in Rome*, upon the Subversion of the Ecclesiastical Government in 1798. By Richard Duppa. 8vo. pp. 149. 4s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

A brief Account of the Subversion of the Papal Government, 1798. Second Edition. By Richard Duppa. 8vo. pp. 197. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

WHILE we were preparing an account of the first edition of this work, we were informed that a second impression would soon appear; we therefore delayed our notice of it, and have now to state, that the chief alterations in the new volume are to be found in the beginning of the first, third, and fourth sections; with the addition of some notes, a translation of all the original papers, a medallion of the Pope, some other plates illustrative of the subjects of which the author treats, a plan of Rome, and a map of the Ecclesiastical State.

To those who wish to be informed of the manner in which the French have conducted themselves towards those nations to whom they promised the blessings of liberty and equality, this narrative must be highly interesting: it is written with great appearance of truth and candour; and the language is easy, unaffected, and perspicuous.

The following quotation will convey a striking example of French humanity and delicacy:

'That the head of the church might be made to feel with more poignancy his humiliating situation, the day chosen for planting the tree of liberty on the capitol was the anniversary of his election to the sovereignty. Whilst he was, according to custom, in the Sistine chapel celebrating his accession to the papal chair, and receiving the congratulations of the Cardinals, Citizen Haller, the commissary-general, and Cervoni, who then commanded the French troops within the city, gratified themselves in a peculiar triumph over this unfortunate potentate. During that ceremony they both entered the chapel, and Haller announced to the sovereign Pontiff on his throne, that his reign was at an end.

'The

'The poor old man seemed shocked at the abruptness of this unexpected notice, but soon recovered himself with becoming fortitude; and when General Cervoni, adding ridicule to oppression, presented him the national cockade, he rejected it with a dignity that shewed he was still superior to his misfortunes. At the same time that his Holiness received this notice of the dissolution of his power, his Swiss guards were dismissed, and Republican soldiers put in their place.'

The character of a nation, like that of an individual, will not perhaps admit of a sudden and total change: this remark is exemplified in the French; who, even when they affect to assume the stern manners of Republicans, cannot divest themselves of their frivolous and fantastical turn, and of that fondness for pomp and show by which they were always distinguished. The following account of the re-establishment of the Roman republic, we are of opinion, will confirm the truth of our assertion.

'*The Federation.*

'That the re-generated Roman people might be constitutionally confirmed in their newly-acquired rights, a day was set apart solemnly to renounce their old government, and swear fidelity to the new. For the celebration of this solemnity, which took place on the 20th of March, an altar was erected, in the middle of the piazza of St. Peter's, with three statues upon it, representing the French, Cisalpine, and Roman republics. Behind the altar was a large tent, covered and decorated with silk of the Roman colours, surmounted with a red cap, to receive the deputies from the departments who had been summoned to assist. Before the altar was placed an open orchestra, filled with the same band that had before been employed to celebrate the funeral honours of Duphot. At the foot of the bridge of St. Angelo, in the piazza di Ponte, was erected a triumphal arch, upon the general design of that of Constantine, in the Campo Vacino, on the top of which was also placed three colossal figures, representing the three republics. As a substitute for bass-reliefs, it was painted in compartments in *chiara scura*, representing the most distinguished actions of Buonaparte in Italy. Before this arch was another orchestra.

'The ceremony in the piazza began by the marching in of the Roman legion, which was drawn up close to the colonnade, forming a semicircular line; then came French infantry, and then cavalry, one regiment after another alternately, drawn up in separate detachments round the piazza. When all was thus in order, the consuls made their entrance, on foot, from the Vatican palace, where they had robed themselves, preceded by a company of national troops and a band of music; and if the weather had permitted, a procession of citizens, selected, and dressed in *gala*, for the occasion, from the age of five years to fifty, were to have walked two and two carrying olive branches; but an excessively heavy rain prevented this part of the ceremony.

'Before

'Before the high altar, on which were placed the statues, there was another smaller one with fire upon it. Over this fire the consuls, stretching out their hands, swore eternal hatred to monarchies and fidelity to the republic; and at the conclusion one of them committed to the flames a scroll of paper he held in his hand, containing a representation of all the insignia of royalty, as a crown, a sceptre, a tiara, &c. after which the French troops fired a round of musketry, and at a signal given, the Roman legion raised their hats in the air upon the points of their bayonets, as a demonstration of attachment to the new government: but there was no shouting—no voluntary signs of approbation; nor do I believe that there ever was a show, in which the people were intended to act so principal a part, where so decided a tacit disapprobation was given as on this occasion.

'After the ceremony was concluded, the French officers, with the consuls and deputies from the departments, dined together in the papal palace on Monte Cavallo, and in the evening gave a magnificent ball to the exnobles and others their partizans, which was numerously attended, yet with an exception to the houses Borghese, Santacroce, Altemp, and Cesarini: I believe not one distinguished family was present from desire or inclination: but it was now no longer time to accumulate additional causes for oppression, and he who hoped to save a remnant of his property, avoided giving occasion for personal resentment. At night the dome of St. Peter's was illuminated, with the same splendor as was customary on the anniversary of St. Peter's day. This was the second time of its illumination since the arrival of the French, having been before displayed on the evening of the solemn Fete to honour the manes of Duphot, which, though not quite so opportune, was done to gratify the officers that were to leave Rome on the morrow.

'The day after this federation, the French published the Roman constitution in form, which was only a repetition of the one given to the unfortunate Venetians, consisting of three hundred and seventy-two articles, and which I think unnecessary to transcribe, as it would only be giving what we have already had from time to time in translations made from their own.

'The provisionary consuls, who were at first seven, were now reduced to five, to exercise the same functions as had been before prescribed to their office; composing a directory, under the direction of the French General, as Commander-in-chief. "Tutte le nomine, tutte le leggi, e tutti gli atti del governo sono sotoposti alla sanzione de generale in capite dell' armata Francese." Besides this branch of legislative authority, there was a nomination of thirty-two senators, corresponding to the council of the ancients in France; and seventy-two tribunes, called the representatives of the people; who were employed in argument, and the discussion of questions, of equal importance to the welfare of their country with those which occupied the Rump parliament in the commonwealth of Cromwell.'

In the next section, we have a relation of the establishment of the Jacobin Club in the hall of the Duke d'Altemp's palace; on which subject the author expresses himself with so much

good

good sense, that it would be an act of injustice not to lay his sentiments before our readers:

'In order that the spirit of equality might be more extensively diffused, a constitutional democratic club was instituted, and held in the hall of the Duke d'Altemp's palace. Here the new-born sons of freedom harangued each other on the blessings of emancipation, talked loudly and boldly against all constituted authority, and even their own Consuls, when hardly invested with their robes, became the subjects of censure and abuse. The English were held as particularly odious, and a constant theme of imprecation; and this farce was so ridiculously carried on, that a twopenny subscription was set on foot to reduce what they were pleased to call the proud Carthage of the North.

'If this foolish society had had no other object in view than spouting for each other's amusement, bowing to, and kissing a bust of Brutus which was placed before the rostrum (a ceremony constantly practised before the evening's debate), it would have been of little consequence to any but the idle, who preferred that mode of spending their time; but it had other objects of a very different tendency, more baneful, and more destructive to the peace and morals of society—that of intoxicating young minds with heterogeneous principles they could not understand, in order to supersede the first laws of nature in all the social duties; for there were not wanting men who knew how to direct the folly and enthusiasm of those who did not know how to direct themselves. Here they were taught that their duty to the Republic ought ever to be paramount to every other obligation; that the illustrious Brutus, whose bust they had before them, and whose patriotic virtue and justice ought never to be lost sight of, furnished them with the strongest, and most heroic example of the subordination of the dearest ties of humanity to the public good; and that, however dear parental affection might be, yet, when put in competition with the general welfare of society, there ought not to be a moment's hesitation which was to be preferred.

'This sort of reasoning might, perhaps, have done no harm to the speculative closet metaphysician, who might have had neither father, nor mother, nor brother, nor sister, nor a chance of ever being thrown in the way to reduce his theory to practice; but with a people who knew of no other ties but such as depended on their religion, and their natural feelings, without having been previously educated to discriminate how far the reason might be deluded by sophistry, or upon what causes the permanent good of society depended, it had the most direct tendency to generate the worst passions, and to annihilate the best.

'Young men were thus initiated to lose all respect for their parents and relations, and even encouraged to lodge information against them, with the hopeful prospect of being considered as deserving well, of what they were pleased to denominate, the republic; and by thus weakening or destroying the bonds of affection, the way was made smooth and easy to the destruction of every thing, like what, in a state of civilization, is called character; doubtless, in order to

prepare

prepare them the better to become the faithful agents of those whom they were thus educated to serve.'

The last section contains a summary view of the conduct of the French in Rome; sufficiently full to convey a clear idea of their duplicity, art, and rapacity, and at the same time so concise as scarcely to admit of an abridgment: we shall therefore make use of the author's words:

'It was when the French were at the gates of Rome, that I myself looked with anxious, though clouded, expectation, for the realizing those theories of republican virtue, that had sometimes served to amuse the speculations of a leisure hour. The opening of the scene was highly favourable to the most flattering hope, both of liberality and justice. In one and the same day all right of conquest was relinquished, and Rome declared a free and independent government: to exercise whose functions, the honestest, the ablest, and the best men that could be chosen out of that party were selected.' This was even consolatory to the enemies of the revolution, but it was of short duration; for the men that were made ostensible to the Roman people as provisionary governors, soon found that their power was hardly even the shadow of authority. They were made use of only to shew where, and in what consisted the little remaining wealth of the state, and politely compelled to give their assent, that this little might be taken from it: they had also the privilege of issuing edicts; which privilege they were compelled to exercise, for oppressing the people beyond all example, of even the greatest despotism of ancient times; and were thus made obnoxious, without even deriving any profit from the plunder that was exacted under their names. Hence, as might be easily expected, those who felt the least regard for their own personal characters soon withdrew themselves, or, by making opposition to such measures, were compelled by others to retire.

'The vacancies produced were then filled up by men of unscrutinized characters, who in this opportunity boldly stepped forward to recommend themselves, through the interest of their money, or other collateral means, and were nominated, as those means seemed to bear a proportion to their pretensions.

'This mode of electing men into office had many advantages. The individuals who had the power of disposing of such places became enriched, their orders were not likely to be disobeyed or reluctantly complied with, and as these agents were to have their percentage, so they would be likely to take good care that their masters should have no reason to complain of any deficiency in the military chest.

'When this was done, and Generals and Commissaries had glutted themselves with wealth, quarrelled about a *just* division of the spoil, mutinied, and dispersed; other unpaid, unclothed, unprovisioned armies from the north, with new appointments, succeeded; and when at length, even by these *constitutional* means, nothing more was to be obtained, and artifice had exhausted every resource, the mask was put under the feet that had been long held in the hand: liberty was declared dangerous to the safety of the Republic, the constituted

authority

authority incapable of managing the affairs of the state, and military law the only rational expedient to supply their place. Thus at once the mockery of consular dignity was put an end to, the senators sent home to take care of their families, and the tribunes to blend with the people, whom they before represented. This new and preferable system began its operations with nothing less important for the general welfare, than seizing the whole annual revenue of every estate productive of more than ten thousand crowns; two-thirds of every estate that produced more than five, but less than ten; and one-half of every inferior annual income.

'This, in a few words, has been the progressive conduct of the Great Nation towards an injured and oppressed people, whose happiness and dearest interests were its first care, and to whom *freedom* and *liberty* had been restored, that they might know how to appreciate the virtue of their benefactors, and the inestimable blessings of independence.'

We cannot dismiss this work without bestowing praise on the author, for the manly and temperate spirit which he has displayed, on a subject on which the passions of human nature would not permit every man to write without acrimony and violence.

Ban.

ART. XIV. *An Illustration of the Roman Antiquities discovered at Bath.* By the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish. Published by order of the Mayor and Corporation at Bath. 4to. pp. 120. and Plates. 7s. 6d. Boards. Dilly. 1797.*

IT is probable that the city of Bath, if not originally built by the Romans, was at least reduced under their power and embellished by their arts as early as the middle of the first century; when, in the reign of Claudius, (according to Tacitus,) the western and south-western parts of this island were completely subdued by Flavius Vespasian. Attracted by the medicinal and warm springs which they here found, and which afforded easy means of indulging in that prime enjoyment of Roman luxury, the Bath, the Roman soldiers there fixed one of their principal stations. *Aquæ Solis*, the name by which they designated this delightful residence, was soon established as a Colony; and in course became entitled to the privilege, which all the Roman colonies enjoyed, of minting its own money. It is to be conjectured, also, that a military forge, or college of armourers, was erected here for the purpose of fabricating legionary arms, under the authority of a Roman government.

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* This work has accidentally been mislaid on our back-shelves, and overlooked.

Invested

Invested with such privileges, and possessing charms so well calculated to render it a favourite seat of the luxurious conquerors, Bath would naturally soon become a splendid and extensive settlement. Accordingly, our antiquaries, by tracing the remains of the Roman city, find it to have been twelve hundred feet in length, and eleven hundred in breadth; surrounded by a wall nine feet thick, and twenty in height; and comprizing spacious and magnificent baths, a superb temple dedicated to Minerva, with a variety of other temples, votive altars, statues, &c. From the middle of the first to the middle of the fifth century, we have reason for believing that Bath continued to be occupied by the Romans. At this latter period, the incursions of the Goths compelled Theodosius the Second to withdraw his legions from the distant provinces, in order to defend the heart of the empire; and then it was that Bath, with the rest of Britain, was reluctantly resigned by its Roman masters, embellished and improved, to the native inhabitants of the island.

In a work professing to describe the Roman antiquities of a city which had so long been in possession of that people, and to whom it probably owed its origin, we are disappointed at finding so few monuments of its former existence as appear in this volume.—Fourteen articles only of this kind are here noticed; namely, four sepulchral stones, five votive altars, a fragment of a statue of Apollo, an altar supposed to be one of the διϐωμοι or double kind, dedicated to Jupiter and Hercules Bibax, a head in relief, the fragment of a pediment, and a piece of antique masonry, supposed by the author to have been the *tympanum* of a temple dedicated to Minerva: but which Governor Pownall, in his Tract on the Antiquities of Bath *, conceives to be a fragment of a temple of *Sol*.

Of these, the sepulchral stones and the votive altars seem to have called for but little ingenuity or antiquarian skill in the explication. They however furnish the author with an opportunity, or a pretext, which he does not let slip, of displaying his store of classical learning. His disquisitions on Roman manners, customs, and mythology, are diffuse and frequent; and they bespeak a familiar acquaintance with the Greek and Latin writers. Perhaps, indeed, it is rather as a scholar than an antiquary, that Mr. Warner best entertains and informs his readers. The following account of one of the votive altars will give an idea of his manner:

* See M. Rev. vol. xix. N. S. p. 58.

' DEÆ SULINI PRO SALUTE ET INCOLUMITATE AUFIDII MAXIMI LEGIONIS VITÆ VICTRICIS MILITIS AUFIDIUS EJUS LIBERTUS (*pro libertus*) VOTUM SOLVIT LIBENS MERITO.

' This votive altar exhibits another example of the gratitude and piety of the Romans. It was erected by a manumitted slave, in performance of a vow made to the Goddess Sulinis, for the restoration of his master, who had made him free.

' Luxury, of every sort, was carried to a proverbial height by this august nation. But in no article were the Romans more extravagantly profuse, than in the use of slaves; and in the multitudes which every citizen of property affected to entertain. The numerous and various offices in their town residences, and country villas; in their gardens, farms, and fields, were filled by these unfortunate beings; over whom the lordly master domineered wich the most uncontrouled and discretionary sway *. To such a pitch, indeed, did this vain and cruel custom arrive, that instances are not wanting of a noble Roman possessing a body of ten, and even twenty thousand domestic slaves †. Nor was it at home alone that they manifested this folly; whole troops of these wretched men followed them wherever they went; whether to the courts of justice, or the senate-house; the theatre, the temple, or the bath; *ubi, comitantibus singulos quinquaginta ministris tholos introierent balnearum* ‡.—*Familiarium agmina, tanquam predatorios globos, post terga trahentes; ne Sannione quidem, ut ait Comicus, domi relicto* §; and Horace records Tigellinus as parading the streets of Rome with a retinue of two hundred servi at his heels ||.

' With the more humane and reflecting Romans, however, it was not unusual to emancipate their slaves from this cruel state of bondage, in the cases of faithful service and meritorious conduct—This was done by various modes; any one of which converted the *Servus* into a *Libertus*, and though it did not confer on him all the rights and privileges of Roman citizenship, liberated him notwithstanding, forever, from the tyranny of a passionate, or the caprice of a whimsical

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' * The numbers of slaves employed by the Romans in their kitchens, and about their persons, must astonish even the most extravagant of our present beaus and epicures.—" Quam celebres culinæ " sunt? Quanta nepotum focos juventus premit. Transeo puerorum " infelicium greges, quos, post transacta convivia, alii cubiculi con- " tumeliæ expectant. Transeo agmina exoletorum, per nationes " coloresque descripta ut eadem omnibus levitas sit, eadem primæ " mensura lanuginis, eadem species capillorum, ne quis, cui rectior est " coma, crispulis misceatur. Transeo pistorum turbam, transeo mini- " stratorum per quos, signo dato, ad inferendam cænam discurritur. " Dii boni!" (subjoins the philosopher) " quantum hominum unius " Venter exercet." Seneca's Epist:

' † Μυριως, και δισμυριως (οικετας) και επι πλειως δε παμπολλοι κεκτυνται· και εσι προσοδοις δε, ωσπερ ὁ των Ἑλληνων ζαπλουτος Νικιας; αλλ' αι πλειως των Ρωμαιων συμπροϊοντας εχουσι τως πλειους. Athenæus Dæip. lib. vi.

' ‡ Ammianus, Lib. xxviii. ' § Id. Lib. xiv.

' || Hor. Sat. Lib. i. 3.'

lord.

lord.—The only compliment due on this occasion from the manumitted slave to his quondam master, was to adopt his name; a circumstance which, we perceive by our inscription, had not been omitted by the freedman of Aufidius Maximus.

'The Sixth legion, mentioned on this altar, was transported into Britain, in the time of Hadrian; and probably accompanied that Emperor, when he took this kingdom in the tour of his dominions*. Its first station was somewhere in the North of England, in the neighbourhood of the Vallum, the West end of which it appears to have erected.—Towards the middle of the reign of Antoninus Pius, it moved rather more to the South, and became stationary at York.—Here it continued till the beginning of the fifth century; when it returned to Italy, to assist in supporting the sinking fabric of the empire†. . . . .

'There is no room to suppose the Legion itself was ever at Bath; but from two inscriptions having been found there, in which mention of it occurs, a reasonable conjecture arises, that one of its dispersed cohorts might have been, at least for a time, quartered in this city.

'This altar was found on the scite of the present Pump-room, about four years since.

'I have added a representation of the *Focos* or *Thuribulum* on the top of the altar; a cavity intended to receive the libations and frankincense offered to the Deity to whom it was dedicated.'

Prefixed to the work is an Introduction, giving a concise account of the Roman history of Bath.—The fragments of antiquity described and explained in the volume are represented by wooden cuts.

Whether or not this production will be thought by the antiquary to possess much merit is perhaps the less important to the author, as it has already received the sanction of the learning and sagacity of a very *worshipful* body of men, whose names we seldom see connected with a work of this description. It is dedicated to, and published *by order* of, the MAYOR AND CORPORATION of Bath!

Wall..e.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For JANUARY, 1800.

MILITARY.

Art. 15. *Pocket Volunteer Cavalry Instructor in the Sword Exercise*, in Five Parts: Part 1st, Explaining the offensive Six Cuts, defensive against Cavalry, the Application of the Point, with the

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'* This we have reason to conclude, from the following inscription on an altar given by Gale.—"Imperatoris Divi Hadriani ab actis tri-"buno militum legionis sextæ victricis cum qua ex Germaniâ in Bri-"tanniam transiit." Galei Anton: Itin. p. 47.'

'† Horsley's Brit. Rom. 79, 80.'

Cuts and Guards against Infantry. Part 2d, Sword Exercise on Foot. Part 3d, Drill on Horseback. Part 4th, Method of Instruction in Classes. Part 5th, Review Exercise, fully explaining the Six Divisions in Line and in Speed, with the Attack and Defence also in Line and in Speed. With Plates, explaining all the Cuts, Guards, and Manœuvres on Foot and on Horseback. 24°. pp. 86. 3s. 6d. sewed. Low. 1799.

THIS is a very ingenious little work, and we can recommend it as a profitable pocket companion to every cavalry officer or volunteer. The contents are sufficiently set forth in the title-page. Suth.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *Monk-Wood Priory.* By Francis Tracy Thomas, Cornet in the East and West Lothian Light Dragoons. 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

This work is derived from the common Stock of ingredients, compounded with flowery sentiment. The principal character is an imitation of Lovelace: but *the happy fate* provided for this gay libertine has, we believe, the merit of novelty. Capt. B.

Art. 17. *The Victim of Prejudice.* By Mary Hays, Author of the Memoirs of Emma Courtney. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

Mary, the heroine of this little tale, is, to the credit of the author's pencil, a spirited and affecting sketch, but somewhat out of nature; and the principle which it is designed to inculcate by no means follows from the premises. By the novels which issue from this school, love, which is a transient passion, is to be complimented, in all cases, at the expence of the regulations and institutions of society; and a respect for virtue and decorum is to be classed in the list of vulgar prejudices. Love, which is generally our happiness, may and will sometimes be our misery. The wisest and the best are often the slaves and victims of circumstances:—Mary is one of those victims,—though amiable, noble, and virtuous, the circumstances of her birth prevented her from being the most eligible match for a man of virtue having virtuous connections, and wishing to have a virtuous offspring. Descended from a mother who was both a prostitute and a murderer, and who expiated her crimes on the gallows, shall we term the objection of the Hon. Mr. Pelham's father to the marriage of his son with her a mere prejudice? Must not William Pelham himself, had he been permitted to marry the lovely and amiable Mary, have had cause to blush when the children who might have been the fruit of their union came to inquire into the history of their mother? According to the fixed laws of nature, we suffer from the vices of our parents; and this, with every wise man, will be a very strong motive to virtue; since the evil resulting from a deviation from her paths will not terminate in ourselves. We must love and pity such a character as Mary Raymond: but her misery results rather from a general sentiment of detestation of atrocious crimes, than from any act which is entitled to the appellation of tyranny. M

LAW.

LAW.

Art. 18. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the High Court of Admiralty;* commencing with the Judgments of the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, Michaelmas Term 1798. By Chr. Robinson, LL.D. Advocate. Vol. I. Royal 8vo. pp. 196. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

In our thirtieth volume N. S. p. 98, we announced this gentleman's report of a judgment given in the High Court of Admiralty on the Swedish Convoy, and then expressed the pleasure which we felt from the promise that these Reports were to be continued.

The pure and upright administration of municipal laws is an object of great importance to every country; indeed a subject of deeper interest can scarcely be conceived, if we except the enactment of the laws themselves, by the operation of which the lives and properties of individuals are to be protected, or oppressed and injured. The administration, however, of the law of nations, is of more general and extensive concern, as it involves in its discussions and decisions the commercial interests of foreign states; it therefore becomes a measure highly proper and expedient, that it should be generally known both in this country and abroad, in what manner, and on what principles, our tribunals administer this species of law. A publication of this description, when its fidelity and accuracy are unimpeachable, will at least prevent the danger of misrepresentation; a danger to which, from the opposite views and jarring interests of the disputants, jurisdictions of this nature are particularly exposed, and the ill effects of which are obvious and important.

We believe that this is the first instance in which the decisions of the Court of Admiralty have been reported; though many valuable tracts on the law of nations, which must necessarily furnish the ground-work of those decisions, have appeared at different periods. The great variety of cases which have occurred during the present war, the natural interest which attaches itself to a subject of such universal importance, and the high and deserved reputation for splendid abilities, incorruptible integrity, and deep and extensive knowlege, possessed by the Judge who presides in that Court, render this publication at this time highly acceptable.

The questions argued in this volume are of such a nature, that they will not only convey information, but give pleasure to every rational and inquisitive mind; and the general as well as the professional reader will be gratified with the discussions which it contains.—In the case of the ship Mentor, it was determined 'that the actual wrong-doer is the only person responsible in the Court of Admiralty for seizure;' the suit therefore against the Admiral of the station was dismissed, he not having been privy to the fact. The discussion produced by this case is curious and interesting; and the decision appears to be perfectly satisfactory, and to have proceeded on just and equitable principles.

The cases here reported are thirty-three in number, and the work is dedicated by permission to Earl Spencer. We trust that the accuracy and diligence shewn by the author, on the present occasion,

will meet with such encouragement from the public as will induce him to persevere in so valuable an undertaking. S.R.

Art. 19. *Reports of Cases argued and ruled at Nisi Prius, in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas*, from Easter Term 36 George III. 1796, to Hilary Term 39 George III. 1799. By Isaac 'Espinasse, of Gray's-Inn, Barrister at Law. Vol. II. Royal 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

The first volume of this publication was noticed in M. Rev. vol. xxi. N.S. p. 463, and we have now merely to announce to our readers the completion of the second; expressing a wish at the same time, that a greater degree of attention had been bestowed on the correction of the press. Do.

Art. 20. *An Essay on the Learning respecting the Creation and Execution of Powers;* and also respecting the Nature and Effect of leasing Powers; in which the Doctrine of the Judgment delivered by the Court of King's Bench, in the Case of Pugh and the Duke of Leeds, and the principal Authorities for and against it, are considered. By John Joseph Powell, Esq. Barrister at Law, of the Inner Temple: the Second Edition, corrected and enlarged from Modern Determinations. 8vo. pp. 650. 9s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1799

We mentioned the first edition of this useful publication, on a difficult and abstruse subject of our law, in M. Rev. vol. lxxx. p. 69, and in addition to the praise which we then bestowed on the performance, we must now observe that the author has enriched it with the insertion of many cases which have been decided in the interval, and with such remarks as the subjects of them appeared to require. Do.

Art. 21. *An Abridgment of the Modern Determinations in the Courts of Law and Equity*, being a Supplement to Viner's Abridgment. By several Gentlemen in the respective Branches of the Law. Vol. 1st, ABATEMENT—BYE-LAWS. Vol 2d, CANONS—CREDITOR AND DEBTOR. Royal 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

The great work, to which the present publication is intended to form a Supplement, appeared between the years 1741 and 1751; and, though it labours under the faults of an erroneous arrangement and frequent repetitions, it must still be considered as a valuable body of law and equity, and as constituting a necessary part of every lawyer's library. Since the year 1751, a number of excellent reports have been given to the profession; Wilson, Burrow, Cowper, Douglas, and the Term Reports both in the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, not to mention a great variety of Chancery Reporters, have all appeared since that time, and have published many cases which deserved and demanded insertion in a general digest of the law. To accomplish this desirable purpose is the object of the present work, which will be continued till the whole alphabet is completed. We now only announce to our readers the publication of the first two volumes, reserving our opinion of the merits of the execution till the whole performance is before us. D.

Art. 22. *A Treatise upon the Law of Legacies.* By R. S. Donnison Roper, Esq. of Gray's-Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 250. 4s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

It has been the author's object, in the present performance, to collect most of the cases on personal bequests, and to extract from them principles, (as far as the nature of the subject admits of being reduced to principles or positive rules,) which may be applied to questions in similar circumstances. We do not recollect any work which has treated on legacies alone, though that branch of our law must necessarily find a place in every treatise on the duty of executors, since it constitutes an important part of that duty. For the purpose of avoiding prolixity, Mr. Roper has given references only to the cases; excepting in a few instances, where a statement of the substance or material parts of them appeared necessary to illustrate the reasons on which they were determined. We approve this practice, and greatly prefer it to the usual mode of extracting large portions from the reports; by which means, books are easily made, without trouble or discrimination on the part of the compiler, and the shelves of a lawyer's library are filled again and again with the same matter in different shapes.

We were surprized at not finding, in the chapter which treats 'of the jurisdiction of courts in legatory matters,' the cases of *Atkins* against *Hill*, B. R. E. 15 Geo. III. Cowp. 284. and *Hawkes* against *Saunders*, B. R. H. 22 Geo. III. Cowp. 289. in which it was decided that an *assumpsit* lies upon a *promise* by an executor to pay a *legacy* in consideration of *assets*. The subsequent case of *Deeks* against *Strutt*, B. R. T. 34 Geo. III. 5 T. R. 690. is mentioned by the author, in which it was decided that no action at law lies for a legacy:—but, in this last case, it is observable that no express promise on the part of the defendant was made to pay the legacy; and it was there said that the law will not imply a promise in consideration of there being a sufficiency of assets. This determination proceeds on the reason of courts of equity being competent to render more substantial justice to the parties, than courts of law.

S. R.

Art. 23. *A complete System of Pleading;* comprehending the most approved Precedents and Forms of Practice; chiefly consisting of such as have never before been printed; with an Index to the principal Work, incorporating and making it a Continuation of Townshend's *(Townsend's)* and Cornwall's Tables, to the present Time; as well as an Index of Reference to all the antient and modern Entries extant. By John Wentworth, Esq. of the Inner-Temple, Barrister at Law. 10 vols. Royal 8vo. 6l. Boards. Robinsons. 1797—1799.

The first volume of this extensive production was announced in our 22d vol. N. S. and we mentioned in that article that Mr. *Townsend* (not Townshend) published his tables in the year 1667; and that, in the year 1705, Mr. Cornwall's Continuation appeared. The present work professes to be not only a continuation of the two former compilations, but also to incorporate the contents of these volumes. Was such a measure necessary?

Judgment in selection, and accuracy in transcribing, are the only qualities that can be expected in a production of this nature; which must be considered merely in the light of a collection of precedents, and an index to printed forms. Neither of these qualities appears in any eminent degree to belong to Mr. Wentworth; for we perceive precedents accumulated with slight variations; and the mistakes discoverable in the work are so numerous, that the pleader must exercise his caution when he applies to these volumes for assistance. S.R.

Art. 24. *Practical Forms;* being chiefly designed as an Appendix to the Practice of the Court of King's-Bench in Personal Actions. By William Tidd, Esq. of the Inner-Temple. 8vo. pp. 600. 9s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

We have frequently noticed Mr. Tidd's Book of Practice in terms of commendation; and our praise has been sanctioned by the approbation of that court, the proceedings of which it professed to illustrate. This new collection, which is intended principally as an appendix to the author's former production, contains a great variety of practical forms, taken from different printed books, as well as from the author's own MSS. These forms are placed in the volume before us in the order in which they occur in the course of a suit, so as to exhibit the general progress of the proceedings, and the particular varieties attending them. The work furnishes an additional proof of the judgment and information of the writer, and incontestably shews that the greatest attention has been paid to method and arrangement: circumstances not to be disregarded in a compilation of this nature. D°

POLITICAL, &c.

Art. 25. *Thoughts on Government*, with a short View of the comparative Political Freedom enjoyed in France, America, Britain, &c. dedicated to The Sovereign People. By George Watson, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapple. 1799.

The irony of the dedication indicated to us the complexion of this pamphlet; which strongly reprobates all republican and democratic governments, as the most destructive of liberty. 'At first sight, (says Mr. Watson,) a republican form of government seems the least exceptionable; but upon an analyzation of its principles, and a knowlege of its effects, it may, perhaps, be pronounced the most so, because the people are slaves to the worst of all tyrants—themselves.'

He is not more partial to the Aristocratical form. 'Degrading as is monarchy, it is still preferable to the yoke of a proud factious nobility.'

'If I am asked under which of the three forms of unmixed government I should choose to live, I would answer without hesitation, "under a Monarchy." There, it is true, I should be the slave of a despot, and my life would be subject to his will; but I should not be the sport of riot and faction.'

It is allowed that no human government can be perfect: but that constitution which most discourages vice, and most promotes the practice of virtue, is the nearest to perfection. The present French

constitution

constitution does not appear to be of this kind; and yet, according to Mr. W.'s account of the best political system, we may be allowed to wonder at hearing him say 'that it would be happy for France could she regain her old form of government, however exceptionable.' If she must change, why change from one extreme to the other? Why not adopt the limited monarchy of Great Britain; which is pronounced to be more perfect, and likely to endure longer, than any other constitution in the world?

Of the British constitution, the author exhibits a very engaging picture; and so far from his having any fears from the influence of the Crown, his apprehensions arise from the opposite quarter. 'Strange as it may appear to some, I will boldly assert my belief, that, if not properly restrained, the superior influence of the people will swallow up the power of the Crown.'

We leave Mr. W. in the full and uninterrupted enjoyment of this part of his political creed; and we will not ask for the facts on which he builds his opinion. Moo-y.

Art. 26. *A Word for the Poor*: or general Thoughts, candidly submitted to the good Sense, Discernment, and particular Consideration of the British Public, on the late scanty Harvest, and the dreary Prospect of a hard Winter. Interspersed, are a few homely, but wholesome, Hints (if rightly taken) to all deep Speculators and greedy Monopolists, whether Farmers or Cornfactors, Usurious Contractors, Forestallers, Engrossers, or Regraters. With a Glance at Levellers, and a parting Word of Admonition to the Poor. By a true Lover of his Country. 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1799.

Some writers are like bad coachmen; they cannot conduct a subject along the road of discussion, without running foul of every idea with which they happen to meet. From the title, we conceived that the author of the pamphlet before us was of this number: but we were deceived; and he has disappointed us in another way. He has induced us to expect more than we found. He has painted more on his board than his shop furnishes. Instead of *General Thoughts*, *Hints*, *Glances*, and *Parting Words*, the pamphlet is little more than a sermonic declamation on the words "he that with-holdeth corn, the people shall curse him."

These words are repeated as often as a fanatical preacher repeats his text in the course of an extemporaneous address; and though it is said that a good thing cannot be told too often, we are of opinion that a good thing may be *printed* too often, when paper, like corn, is become a very scarce and dear article.

The intention of the writer is certainly benevolent: but we fear that such general hints as those which he throws out are not calculated to do much good. Do

Art. 27. *Speech of the Earl of Glandore* in the House of Lords of Ireland, on Friday February 13, 1789, upon a Motion to agree with the Commons in an Address to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, to take upon him the Regency of that Kingdom, during the Incapacity of the King. 8vo. pp. 13. Dublin. 1799.

This speech was first printed in 1792, and has been now re-printed in Dublin, as the subject was thought to be connected with the great question of union depending in Ireland. It asserts that Ireland is a part or parcel of the dominions of the Imperial Crown of England, and that the relation of that country to England differs essentially from the relation in which Scotland stood to England before the union. The noble and patriotic orator contends that Ireland holds its sovereignty of the *Crown* of England, and not of the *person of the King*; and therefore that the Irish legislature could not adopt the measure proposed, without departing from the principles of the constitution. Moo-y.

EDUCATION.

Art. 28. *Columbus*; or, The Discovery of America: as related by a Father to his Children, and designed for the Instruction of Youth. Translated from the German of J. H. Campe, by Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 2 Vols. in one. 3s. 6d. Boards. Low, 1799.

This history of the Discovery of America is intended as the first part of a collection of voyages, which the author has undertaken to prepare for the instruction of youth; and of which some other parts have since been published. It is unnecessary to bestow encomiums on a design so praise-worthy; and which is so much the more useful, as, in the greater part of the accounts published of voyages performed by the most celebrated of the early discoverers, actions are represented with that species of deceitful colouring which is the most liable to create impressions subversive of every principle of humanity and justice. M. Campe has given his relation in the form of dialogues, as being convenient for the purposes of occasional explanations, and of introducing instruction on subjects of geography, history, &c.

History appears best calculated to convey instruction, when it consists of truth with sound comment, delivered in language the most explicit. Such history must prove the best antidote against the poison which has been infused into the morals and dispositions of mankind, by those innumerable relations which have attached renown to extraordinary, more than to good, actions. Principles similar to those which we have commended, the author has kept in view in drawing up his history of the Discovery of America: but his hand has been restrained by an opinion that 'it is necessary by degrees to unveil the truth, and with infinite precaution to discover to pupils, as they advance in years, the caprice and injustice of men; lest, finding themselves deceived in the flattering picture they had drawn, from imagining a society of angels they fall into the opposite extreme, and take their fellow-creatures for so many fiends!'—To these considerations, it is probably to be attributed that the author has in a few instances shewn too great a solicitude to preserve some characters from reproach; not by disguising facts, but, as the translator expresses it, in giving the 'full merit to the adventurers for their courage, perseverance, &c. and retracing with a merciful hand the atrocious deeds which disgraced them.' This gradation of developement might, perhaps, with less danger of obscuring the truth, be effected by care in the selection of subjects for instruction, than

by

by any exclusive adaptations. We are of opinion that the voyages of Columbus may be pronounced to be proper subjects of information, if justly represented, for pupils who are of an age sufficiently advanced to comprehend them.—Notwithstanding the restraint under which M. Campe seems to have laid himself, his relation appears better calculated to inculcate good principles, than any other edition of the same voyages that has been published.

The following extract, taken from the account of the conquest of Hispaniola, will serve as a specimen of his manner:

'*The Father* (in continuation)—" The two armies were already in sight of each other, and the dreadful moment approached which was to decide upon the life [lives] of the Spaniards and the liberty of the Indians. On one side, a hundred thousand Indians appeared armed with clubs, wooden scimitars, pikes, and arrows. On the other, two hundred foot and twenty European horse were supported by a small body of Indians under the command of Guakanahari; but what this handful of Europeans wanted in number was added in military discipline, weapons, horses, and—shall I speak it—even in dogs!"

'*Charlotte.* " Dogs!"

'*The Father.* " Yes, my child. They had brought a number of mastiffs to let loose upon the poor naked Indians, in the same manner as is usual against wild boars and beasts of prey."

'*Charlotte.* " Oh, shameful! This was not attacking them like men."

'*The Father.* " The danger therefore you see was nearly equal on both sides, and consequently the issue of the battle easy to foresee. Columbus made choice of night for the horrid scene he was preparing; hoping that darkness would increase the terror with which the Indians would necessarily be seized on an unexpected attack. Night therefore being come, and his little army divided between Bartholomew, the Cacique Guakanahari, and himself, he fell upon the Indians at the moment they least expected an attack. The shouts and fury of the assailants, the noise of the fire-arms, the barking of the dogs, struck the Indians with such consternation and terror, that after a slight resistance they fled in disorder and dismay.—Thus were these inoffensive people constrained to bend beneath the yoke of European slavery!"

In this dialogue, the motives for fighting are not on both sides justly represented. The Spaniards fought not for their lives: they might probably have negociated: retreat must have been in their power; and this, justice prescribed: but they were actuated by very different motives. The Indians, indeed, fought for their liberty; the Spaniards, for plunder and dominion.—In the sequel, the father observes: 'Hitherto we have seen Columbus act only in such a manner as to inspire our admiration and conciliate our friendship; but still he was a man. Prepare, therefore, to behold him in his turn degenerate, and from thence learn that it is necessary for man, how strong soever may be his propensities to virtue, to keep strict guard on his heart and actions.'—

M. Campe has noticed the sources whence he drew his materials. As he proceeds, perhaps, he could not do better than by consulting the

the original accounts for *facts*, and *describing* them from such considerations as shall be suggested by his own sense of justice.

The language of the translation is plain, and easy of comprehension: but we find some inaccuracies in the nautical and geographical parts of the narrative, which a closer attention to the generally received accounts would have prevented.

Capt. B...

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 29. *The Turnpike Gate;* A Musical Entertainment in Two Acts; now performing with universal Applause, at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By T. Knight. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1799.

Musical farces are not expected to stand the test of dramatic criticism. The plot and dialogue are considered as little more than pegs on which to hang the songs and music; and if they answer this purpose, the chief end is accomplished. The *Turnpike Gate*, in this respect, may please in the representation. The songs have merit; and there is one character, of a Village *Scrub* or man of all work, which is conceived with some degree of originality and humour, under the name of *Crack*. Sir Edward allows this Crack to drive his curricle in order to exercise the horses; they run away with him and a sailor whom he takes with him, and break the carriage to pieces; the following is the dialogue with the groom after the accident:

'*Groom.* Why, that trunk, you, and the sailor, for a light carriage, were a little too weighty, I think, friend.

'*Crack.* Not weighty enough, friend, or your trotting nags would not have galloped so fast; but it seems your and your horses wits jump.

'*Groom.* How so?

'*Crack.* Why, your horses, like you, voted us too weighty, and so unloaded us.

'*Groom.* Unloaded you!

'*Crack.* Yes; if you won't believe me, ask your master's great coat—*(gives it)*—Brush it, dy'e hear, it has been rubb'd already.

'*Groom.* And hav'n't you brought the black horse back?

'*Crack.* Why, how you talk! the black horse would not bring us back.

'*Groom.* And where is he?

'*Crack.* He's gone.

'*Groom.* Gone! Where?

'*Crack.* He did not tell me where he was going; I was not in his confidence; when you catch him, teach him better manners

'*Groom.* Dam'me, if ever I heard the like before!—*(amazed.)*

'*Crack.* No, nor saw the like *behind!* He winc'd like a devil! the worst bred horse I ever saw.

'*Groom.* What do you talk of? Not a better bred horse in the kingdom—*(with a knowing slang manner)*.

'*Crack.* Then the manners of horses are not more refined than their masters; he kick'd up, as much as to say, that for you—*(kicks up)*.

'*Groom.*

'*Groom.* Dam'me, but you seem to have made a very nice job of it.

'*Crack.* If you flatter at hearing *half*, what will you say when you know the *whole?* The carriage, you see——

'*Groom.* Is that run away too?

'*Crack.* No; but it might, if I hadn't taken good care of it.

'*Groom.* By driving over posts, I suppose?

'*Crack.* No; by driving *against* posts—(Oh! you'll find me correct)—by which I took off one wheel, and broke the other.

'*Groom.* And havn't you brought it with you?

'*Crack.* Without wheels! how could I?—'twould have broke my back.

'*Groom.* I wish you mayn't get your head broke, that's all!

'*Crack.* So far from that, I expect to be complimented for my judgment; for if I had not, like a skilful whip, whipped off the wheels, I might have lost the carriage and all its valuable contents: by being expert, I have saved both.

'*Groom.* Well, friend, you seem very merry under misfortune, and I wish you luck; It was Sir Edward's own doing, he can't blame me. [*Exit.*

'*Crack.* If he should, I'll make a neat defence for the sake of your nice feeling: dam'nd hard, if at a battle of brains, I could not outgossip a grumbling groom. Whenever I'm puzzled, I always hum folk; humming's all the fashion.

'SONG—CRACK.

'With a merry tale
Serjeants beat the drum;
Noddles full of ale,
Village lads they *hum:*
Soldiers out go all,
Famous get in story;
If they chance to fall,
Don't they sleep in glory!
Towdy rowdy dow, &c.

II.

'Lawyers try, when fee'd,
Juries to make pliant,
If they can't succeed,
Then they *hum* their client;
To perfection come,
Humming all the trade is,
Ladies, lovers *hum,*
Lovers *hum* the ladies.
Towdy rowdy dow, &c.

III.

'Han't Britannia's sons
Often *humm'd* Mounseer?
Han't they *humm'd* the Dons?—
Let their fleets appear—

Strike

Strike they must tho' loth,
(Ships with dollars cramm'd,)
If they're not *humm*'d both,
Then will I be d———
Towdy rowdy dow, &c.' Moo.y.

Art. 30. *Poems*, by Robert Farren Cheetham. 4to. 2s. 6d. Printed at Stockport.

This writer expresses himself much displeased with us for having objected to the term *whetstone*, in one of his former poems, as rather bordering on vulgarism. As we have already assigned our reasons for this opinion, we are not inclined to enter into farther dispute on the subject, and shall therefore pass over the flippant remarks which the author makes in his preface, without any animadversion.

Of the present collection, we shall commence our account by making the following extract, part of an

'Ode spoken at Manchester school.

'Let Latian Muses, and the sister train,
That fill'd great Homer's mind with heavenly fire,
That taught the Theban Eagle's towering strain
To warm the soul and deeds of fame inspire;
Let these, in native charms array'd,
Depict the conquering Cæsar's noble mind,
In war supremely brave, supremely kind,
And show the woes of Rome, that mad ambition made;
Be their's the task, adorn'd with Græcian vest,
The fateful wrath of Peleus' son to sing,
To paint the gallant Hector's dauntless breast,
And Helen's faithless charms of wars and woes the spring:
But let the British Muse, in native verse,
The deeds of Britain's sons with conscious pride rehearse.
Nor look we to the times of yore,
When Cressy's field was drench'd with gore,
When *numbers numberless* bestrew'd the plain,
That groan'd beneath the weight of warriors slain;
When sable Edward, with his valiant few,
To hunger and fatigue a prey,
Thro' all the ranks with lightning's swiftness flew,
And reap'd the glorious harvest of the day:
Majestic on his helmet's crested pride,
Sat gorgeous Valour plumed, with Victory at his side.
How dubious is the fate of war,
Which smiles not always on the strong!
To souls, that greatly think, and nobly dare,
The never-fading palm and deathless meed belong.'

Though Mr. C. may pronounce that we are ill-qualified to judge of poetry, perhaps he will allow us to remark, as grammarians, that the expression *numbers numberless* is not far removed from nonsense; and, as he values himself on his classical education, he might have known that limitation is of the essence of *number*, and in that respect only it differs from *multitude*.

We

We shall make one extract more, lest the author should suppose that, from pique or resentment, we were desirous of concealing his merit from the world.

'Sonnet to Sapphira.

'Oft as the feather'd choirs, with descant shrill,
Wake from its curtain'd sleep the infant day;
Oft as the Sun emits his fiercest ray,
Oft as he sinks behind the distant hill;
So oft my thoughts revert, with sweetest pain,
To thee, Sapphira, day-spring of my soul;
Nor would I banish tempered grief's control,
For all the wealth that earth and seas contain.
Whene'er my solitary footsteps roam,
To thee my mind, unfettered, swiftly flees,
A pardon'd truant from its native home;
Frequent I waft a kiss into the air,
And bid the Genius of the southern breeze
The balmy freightage to Sapphira bear.'

We have seen nothing in this collection to induce us to retract the judgment which we formerly passed on Mr. C 's poetical talents. We know not that we ever called in question the liveliness of his imagination: but we cannot allow that he possesses, in a great degree, either judgment or taste.

Ban.r

Art. 31. *An Essay on the Passions:* with other Poems. By A. Donoughue. 8vo. pp. 140. Printed at Shrewsbury for Owen, Welshpool: London, Champante and Whitrow. 1799.

We know not what the personal merit or misfortunes of this young author may be: but, if he be a native or an inhabitant of Welshpool, the place of publication, he must have possessed some means of acquiring favour with which we are unacquainted; as the list of his subscribers seems to have been chiefly furnished from that town.

We should be sorry to check rising genius, or to diminish the zeal of the author's friends, by severity of censure. Yet our duty to the public, and indeed to ourselves, will not allow us to recommend this pamphlet to readers of nice discernment and taste. The lines are often rough, and the ideas distorted by aukward struggles at metaphor and poetical ornament; the rhymes are frequently unwarrantable, and the English is not always grammatical:—but, by the account which Mr. D. gives of his circumstances, we may suppose that the publication was precipitated by the pressure of penury, before sufficient reading and study had formed his taste for composition, or he had leisure for revising and polishing his pieces.

We do not recollect, in all our laborious reading, to have met with—keen sensations shooting *along* the heart—the *wheels* of feeling—enchantment's swell—attune the glow—Favonius warbles—chase (for seek) happiness—&c. These and many more inaccuracies appear in the initial poem; and yet, here and there, we have something like poetry that is nearly correct. The description of pity seems to merit praise unmixed with blame. After having delineated

lineated the different species of insanity lodged in the cells of Bedlam, the author exclaims:

'But turn from scenes like these, my frighted Muse!
To Pity's empire, and her lovelier views.
How wide, how wonderful th' attractive ties,
That link the heart in secret sympathies!
As round the changeful scenes of life appear,
We love, we hate, we weep, we hope, we fear.
Nor yet for self the keenest pangs we feel,
For other's woes, more genial tears will steal.
Thou tender martyr of condolence! tell,
How strong the tides that social bosoms swell!
Did e'er thy soul so true to nature's tone,
So deeply weep for sorrows of thine own?
Nor e'en will sympathetic grief suffice;
Imagin'd pains, fictitious woes will rise.
How often at Imagination's call,
Will sighs ascend, and ready torrents fall?
Observe the maid as o'er the false romance
She bends, and flutters in delirious trance:
Her throbbing breast concordant measures keeps,
Now laughs with rapture, now with anguish weeps,
See how each feeling, on her face pourtray'd,
Absorbs the reader, and o'ercomes the maid.'

As this is the longest and most important poem in the collection, we shall confine our criticisms to its defects. The author does not know, perhaps, that there are 16 unfair rhymes in this piece:—nor that his partiality, or convenience, has terminated six lines with the word *vein*; the rhyme to four of which is *strain*. Typographical errors, of which several occur in the works of authors long used to the press, we can easily pardon when they escape the notice of inexperience; and, approaching the end of this poem, we must own that the complaints of penury which escape this young bard, and his pathetic address to "the society lately established for the relief of indigent genius," soften our rigour; and make us hope, as sparks of genius are discoverable in these early essays, that his case will be taken into consideration by this liberal and laudable institution:

'Which freely gives, yet never sounds the deed
Nor claims a plaudit for compassion's meed.
Extatic hope! no more shall genius strive,
With want calamitous, nor fear to live;
No bard despondent break the lyric wire,
Nor future Chattertons for want expire;
No ill-starr'd youth be doom'd to bloom in vain;
No Otway raise the unrewarded strain.'

Among the subsequent pieces, amounting to more than twenty, the *description of Powis Castle and its Environs* is perhaps the best; and among descriptive and encomiastic poems, it deserves an honourable niche.

Dr Beaty. Art

Art. 32. *Affectation;* or the Close of the Eighteenth Century: A Satire, in Dialogue. By Gratiano Park. Part the First. 4to. 1s. Lee. 1799.

Stulta est clementia—perituræ parcere chartæ. Let not the satirist regard the present scarcity of linen rags, and the consequent dearness of paper; and as for the critics, he needs not to be alarmed at them. According to this modern Juvenal, their approbation is rather to be deprecated than courted, since *to please the critics is the loss of fame.* In course he has not been solicitous of travelling in this "Road to Ruin;" and indeed he has taken care to prevent the murder of his fame by our unqualified commendation. Yet we must do him justice, however it may put him in a passion, and lead him to consider himself as an undone poet:—but Mr. Park, perhaps, may be tinctured a little with the vice against which he points his satire, when he pretends to regard critical praise as dangerous; and should we be right in our conjecture, it may furnish him with a hint for his second part. Moreover, we advise him to recollect that a satirist may be satirized; and that, by the use of improper epithets, he may excite a smile against himself. How can a man be *modest*, who deals in *puffing quackery?*—Mr. P. may improve as he proceeds, since he is not without poetic energy; as the following satirical lines on Pizarro will shew:

'Lo! Brinsley, of the stage forgetful long,
Now turns imperial KOTZEBUE to song!
With lacker, leather, trumpet, musket, gun,
Altar and phosphor, lion and full sun;
Lumb'ring he loads the dull inertive mass,
Nor brightens into gold the sterling *brass:*
Incongruous scenes, show, song, and storm proceed,
Men roar, and women rant, and chieftains bleed:
A base deserter from his country's side,
Reforms man's rudeness, and is Nature's pride;
A hero, whom his monarch's safety arms,
Yet guided only by a woman's charms,
Pines, droops, *surrenders*, if his mistress scold;
Tho' brave, defenceless; and, tho' raging, cold;
A harlot, fierce, intolerant, and vain,
Pours from her stormy breast mild Virtue's strain;
You'd swear, her truths so moral, so divine,
'Tis David's son, or else some concubine,
Has stol'n his proverbs, and gives line for line.'

'*You'd swear*' is a vulgarity, and the passage would have been better had the whole triplet been omitted. 'Bid AFFECTATION hail,' in p. 13. is not, surely, an order to Affectation to call somebody;—the author must intend that the muse should hail Affectation.

Moo-y.

Art. 33. *Management:* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederic Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees.

Some allowance, we confess, must be made to the dramatist in the construction and conduct of his fable: but he ought to exercise a little moderation in drawing on our belief. In painting "the manners living as they rise," in laughing at fashionable follies, and in exposing prevailing vices, high colouring may be necessary, and ought not to be condemned; yet, after every allowance which we make to the play-wright, we cannot tolerate violent offences against nature and credibility. We grant Mr. Reynolds the merit of having made some good strokes at the fashionable world: but on his play, as a whole, we cannot bestow any great commendation. As he seems to understand the art of *keeping things alive* on the boards, it may *go off* with tolerable effect: but the mere jumble of incidents, and the collision of unnatural characters, producing bustle and embarrassment, working at cross-purposes, and saying and doing what was really never said and done by persons in their supposed circumstances, cannot constitute a good play. In the present drama, there is too much of this,—as in some of Mr. R.'s former productions.

Some of our men of fashion may perhaps be satirized in the person of Lavish; an idea of whose character will be furnished by the following short scene:

'*Enter* LAVISH.

'*Lavish.* Oh! if I go on in this close saving way only six months longer, I shall be able to return to town and dash like the best of them:—never was such a hand at buying bargains.—Frank, come here, you rogue:—just now, at Squire Brozier's sale, what do you think I gave for a curricle?—only forty pounds!—there, there's economy for you.

'*Frank.* Economy!—begging your pardon, Sir,—I see no economy in buying what you don't want.

'*Lavish.* How?—would you let a bargain slip through your fingers, you extravagant rascal?

'*Frank.* No—but you've no horses, Sir; and a curricle's useless——

'*Lavish.* That's what I said: says I, a curricle is useless without horses,—so I bought a pair directly.

'*Frank.* Bought a pair?

'*Lavish.* Ay, gave a hundred and twenty pounds for them—to be sure it's money; but one's own carriage saves posting and drivers: in short, the worst come to the worst, 'tis but a hundred and fifty pounds, and I'll save it a thousand ways.—Who are you, Sir? *(to a Workman.)*

'*Workman.* I have finish'd that job, all but fixing up the statue, Sir; and now I come about the billiard-room:—but, to speak honestly, it is not worth repairing.

'*Lavish.* So I thought; I thought it wasn't worth repairing.

'*Workman.* No, Sir; and a new room will not cost above three hundred pounds:—but then to be sure it will be elegant and lasting.

'*Lavish.* So it will, and the first expence is the least; so up with the new room.—*(Workman exit.)*—And now to finish my vindication to Juliana—*(Sits at the table and writes)*:—"Your late mother

mother was not only my relation, but my friend and benefactress; and on Sir Hervey's one day reprobating her conduct with unusual asperity, gratitude prompted me to defend it perhaps more warmly than I ought, and a duel was the result."—(*Knocking at the door.*)—See who's there.—(FRANK *exit.*)—But what signifies writing? while she's immured in her present den, I haven't a chance of success.—Mrs. Dazzle formerly seduced me into some gallantries, and a disappointed widow is the devil.'

The epilogue, written by Mr. Colman, and spoken by Fawcett in the character of *Mist*, the manager of a country play-house, could not fail of being well received.

Moo-y.

Art. 34. *The East Indian*; a Comedy. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By A. Thomson, Author of Whist, &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1799.

This comedy appears in a less exceptionable form, in the present publication, than in the "German Miscellany," which gave it to the world several years ago, under the title of 'Indians in England.' Still, however, it partakes too much of the defects of the Teutonic Drama,

Manserunt, hodieque manent vestigia ruris.

For some of its errors, however, our own stage may be accountable; since the character of *Gurli*, the child of nature in this piece, bears a resemblance too close to be accidental, to a similar personage in a farce written by Kelly: that character was taken from Marmontel's *Coraly*, and here, heaven help us! has the imitative shadow risen again before us. Where will this literary traffic terminate? Should Mr. Kotzebue continue to engross the public favour, by rewriting the works of our own dramatists, he has still an ample career before him. Congreve, Dryden, Cibber, Farquhar, and many others, remain to be put to the torture. All the French writers, too, are still in reserve, from

"The frippery of crucified Moliere,"

to the lightest summer-fly of the Parisian theatres. Never surely was the taste of the British Public seen at so low an ebb, as in their condescension to admire a foreigner for his plagiarisms from very inferior writers of this country. That our manners are ill represented by Kotzebue is a fault not to be severely charged on a stranger: but that the distorted resemblance should be applauded among ourselves, and transferred to our own canvas, is certainly an impeachment of the national discernment. Can we discover, for example, in the following passage, either delicacy or elevation of sentiment? though it be intended to convey the feelings of a man of worth and honour, an English Baronet, an injured husband, and an insulted father!

'*Liddy*. Unhappy party-spirit, in so small a family.

'*Sir John*. Who is to blame? Is it not your mother? Who torments me from breakfast time to the hour of supper? Who is it, that throws my unmerited bankruptcy in my teeth, with every scanty morsel that I eat? Who despises my good burgher's blood, and talks so big of her German ancestors? Who is it that suffers me to starve? Who talks our tenants out of their money, and squanders

so idly the slender rents which the possession of these houses has still left me? Did you not hear how I petitioned last night for a pipe of tobacco, and a pot of porter. Samuel carried your mother to the playhouse; and I was obliged to send my appetite to sleep.'

Were there any vigour of invention displayed in the other characters, even a passage like this might be excused: but, as Mr. Kotzebue has represented his worthy baronet as a driveller, and addicted to low habits, so he has made his copy of the amiable ingenuousness of Coraly, and of Kelly's heroine, degenerate into a changeling. The only feeling distinctly expressed by the Frow Gurli is of too gross a nature to be tolerated on our theatre. We might have expected that some part of the offensive passages would have been retrenched by the translator: but he appears to be inattentive even to the appropriate meaning of phrases in our own language. He makes his fair Indian complain, for example, (p. 31.) that she could not help *plucking a rose* in the park. Very similar to this was the exclamation of John Quarles, son of the renowned author of the *Emblems*, in one of his elegies:

> "I cannot hold: the laws of nature break
> The laws of reason, and my cisterns leak."

The unlucky demand for porter and tobacco comes upon us again, in the second act, and, strange to tell! wins the heart of the Nabob of Mysore.

'*Kaberdar.* (*Aside.*) This is noble of the girl, that she is not ashamed to work for her daily bread! this is noble!

'*Tom.* I never saw so much money at once in my life. Farewel, noble Sir. May God reward you.

'*Kaberdar.* Whither art thou going?

'*Tom.* Out.

'*Kaberdar.* But the money!

'*Tom.* I have it in my pocket.

'*Kaberdar.* And will you not carry it to Miss Liddy?

'*Tom.* No, noble Sir. Miss Liddy commanded me to bring a pound of tobacco from neighbour Williams, and a pot of porter from the nearest tavern.

'*Kaberdar.* What! does Miss Liddy smoke?

'*Tom.* Lord! no Sir, I suppose it is for her father. The poor old man wishes sometimes to indulge himself a little; but his wife and son will not give him any thing.

'*Kaberdar.* (*Aside.*) Excellent girl! excellent girl! (*to Tom*) Go now; go. (*exit Tom*) This is decisive. Such a heart must command happiness: were she even not beautiful, filial love would lend her celestial charms. At present she is poor; and yet she grudges not to labour five whole nights for her father. I am determined.'

Et sic infinitum. Thus does the Thespian waggon rumble forwards, till the fatigued passenger arrives at the joyful conclusion. Courteous reader! if ever thou hast known the agony and *cordolium* of travelling five tedious stages, through sloughs and quagmires, with the dullest and most vulgar personages who ever were stuffed

as *agreeable companions* into a stage-coach or post-chaise, then mayest thou form an adequate idea of our sufferings during the perusal of this most sentimental performance. Fer..r.

Art. 35. *Poems*, written by E. S. J. 12mo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Jordan.

Poor Chatterton was soon detected when he attempted to impose his poems on the public as the works of Rowley, a Monk of the 15th century, because they were superior to any thing produced in the period to which he referred them: but, had the writer of the rhimes before us chosen to have published them as from a MS. found in an old trunk belonging formerly to Thomas Sternhold or John Hopkins, it would not have been easy, from internal evidence, to have detected the forgery. *Ex. gr.*

'All day I bade in the thick wood
Till night should succour me;
And panted for to see my love
Again impatiently.'—

'My fearful soul, thou 'bodest ill,
She cry'd, all in dismay;
Were Edwin, Edwin, but come back
That's been so long away.'—

'She told it too with many a look
Of innocence sincere;
That Goval taught of JESUS' death
For mankind sinning here.'

Shades of Sternhold and Hopkins! pardon us! We ought to have said that these verses were stolen from the Bellman's Christmas gift to his good masters and mistresses. Moo-y.

Art. 36. *The Writing Desk*; or Youth in Danger. A Play in Four Acts. *Literally* translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1799.

The German dramatic loom, though celebrated for weaving a tissue of improbabilities and often of immoralities, continues to find importers and admirers of its productions. Like our Old Tapestry, it entertains, not so much from the accuracy of the drawing and perspective, as from its striking effect and the multitude of figures crouded together upon it. The play, of which a translation is before us, is from a celebrated manufacturer, who cannot be denied the merit of being very industrious. His *Writing-Desk* is calculated to excite interest, to keep up attention, and has withal no indifferent moral attached to it: but the incidents are at strife with truth. The circumstance which gives name to the piece is not at all credible, any more than that which determines the catastrophe,—the marriage: but the readers and frequenters of dramatic performances are not disposed to be offended at little improprieties and incongruities, provided that they are *surprized*, that a good sentiment or two is thrown in, and that the whole *goes off* tolerably well.

The translation is so *literal*, as to be far removed from good English style. Do

Art. 37. *The Wise Man of the East.* A Play, in Five Acts, performing at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. From the German of Kotzebue. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1799.

This drama is an alteration from "The Writing Desk" noticed in the preceding article. The characters are newly named, and some of the incidents are considerably varied: but, though this is done for the purpose of stage effect, we do not think that it improves the play in the closet. *Claransforth* is a less amiable man than *Ditthelm*, his prototype; and his intended seduction of Ellen does not interest us so much in his favour as the pure passion of the young German Banker, Ditthelm, for the amiable and noble-minded *Sophia*. The substitution of the Quaker family for Madame Luppnitz and Emily is no improvement of the piece, as they form a clumsy picture. That *Ava Thoana* should, at the end of the drama, prove to be the father of Claransforth, who was supposed to have been destroyed, is one of those improbable discoveries in which English audiences seem to take much delight; as if they thought that every play, like the marriage service, should end with "*amazement:*"—but these tricks, intended to excite strong emotions of surprize, will not on reflection be approved by any wise man, either of the *East* or the *West*.

The moral of Mrs. Inchbald's alteration is not so good as that of the German play. A man who attempts the seduction of a beauteous and virtuous fair one is not entitled to the honour of her hand, nor should the stage inculcate so pernicious a lesson. Moo-y.

Art. 38. *The Shade of Alexander Pope* on the Banks of the Thames. A Satirical Poem. With Notes. Occasioned chiefly, but not wholly, by the residence of Henry Grattan, Ex-Representative in Parliament for the City of Dublin, at Twickenham, in November, 1798. By the Author of the Pursuits of Literature. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket. 1799.

The celebrated author of the *Pursuits of Literature* makes the indignant shade of POPE give a very discourteous and inhospitable reception to the famous Ex-Patriot of Ireland, on his late visit to a temporary residence in the pleasant purlieus of "*Twit'nam.*" Hear our redoubted Satirist's reasons for his choice of such a subject:

'This poem was chiefly occasioned by the perusal of Dr. Patrick Duigenan's Answer to the Address of Mr. Grattan to his Fellow Citizens of Dublin. I considered the Address and the Answer with that attention, earnestness, and zeal which the importance of such a Cause, at this present hour, requires and demands. I considered it in this manner, because whatever affects Ireland, *must* affect the existence and safety of Great Britain, and of all the dependencies, territories, and possessions annexed to the Crown.

'I think Dr. Duigenan might have adopted the very words of Cicero against Antony. That Orator requested indulgence and attention when he spoke of himself; but as to the enemy of his country, he exclaimed with confidence; "Cum de illo loquor, faciam ut attente audiatis." A more masterly, just, and irresistible piece of

of argument has seldom appeared; and if the eloquence suffers any abatement, it is from the admission of some expressions which might, and should, have been avoided. But a mind intent on great and national matters, urgent in their nature and allowing of no delay, cannot always attend to the minuter elegancies and graces of diction.

'In Dr. Duigenan's Answer, there is the vigour, the manliness, the courage, the impetuosity, the indignation, and the thunder of an orator, feeling for the wrongs of his country and the horrors of rebellion, against a Man, whose political conduct and character have ranked him among the domestic enemies of Ireland. Against a man, who appears to have imposed himself upon his credulous country, under the pretence of brilliant talents and rhetorical exertions. Against a man, who boasts that in the hour of distress, *he* EXTORTED from the timid and feeble Minister of the day, and from an improvident British Parliament, such *concessions*, as have been since proved to be inconvenient, and sometimes in direct opposition to the essential welfare of Ireland. Against a man, who received the most extravagant and disproportioned rewards for very equivocal services, and who has now fled to England from his own country, from that hue and cry of every loyal subject, which pursued him from the Castle, to the shop and to the cottage.

'I have nothing to do with Mr. Grattan, but in his publick capacity, as his actions, his writings, and his speeches have demonstrated and declared it to the world. He has signed with his own hand all the doctrines, which have been discussed, exposed, and confuted.

'In Mr. Grattan's Address we find, as I think, false facts, even of the day, false history, false reasoning, false premises, and false conclusions. There is inanity of sound, and shallowness of argument. We observe the glosses of the sophist, and all the purple patches in the rhetorician's cloak. It is such a tissue of the most unfounded assertions, rebellious doctrines, and treasonable sentiments, as have discovered, and proved to the loyal subjects of Great Britain and Ireland, WHO AND WHAT MR. GRATTAN is. But I refer to the caustick discussions of Dr. Duigenan, whose answer, I hope, will be read in this country; for it does not concern Ireland alone.'

As a specimen of the poem, we may quote the following lines from the exordium:

'What accents, murmur'd o'er this hallow'd tomb,
Break my repose, deep-sounding through the gloom?
Would mortal strains immortal spirits reach,
Or earthly wisdom truth celestial teach?
Ah! 'tis no holy calm that breathes around:
Some warning voice invites to yonder ground,
Where once with impulse bold, and manly fire,
I rous'd to notes of war my patriot lyre;
While Thames with every gale, or bland or strong,
Sigh'd through my grotto, and diffus'd my song.
'Whence bursts that voice indignant on my ear?
To Britain ever faithful, ever dear,

E'en *now* my long-lov'd, grateful Country's cause,
Her fam'd pre-eminence, her state, her laws,
Can touch my temper of ethereal mould,
Free as great Dryden, and as Milton bold.
Sadly the scene I view, how chang'd, how lost!
The statesman's refuge once, and poet's boast;
I hear the raven's hoarse funereal cry,
Since all, whom Ireland spares, to *Twitnam* * fly.
" The polish'd Nestor of the classick shore,
Mendip †, *my* green domain can guard no more;
Lo, Cambridge ‡ droops, who once with tuneful tongue
The gifts of science, and her wand'rings sung;
With Him, whom Themis and the Muses court,
The learned Warden of the *tatter'd* Fort §:
For their best task *my* Sylphs are all unfit,
While more than Gnomes along the meadows flit.
No more my fabled phantoms haunt the plains,
Where Moloch *now*, in right of Umbriel, reigns;
His bands from their Hibernian Tophet pass,
And clash the cymbal's visionary brass;
Or round my groves, sublime on murky wing,
Spells of revolt and revolution fling;
And as they glide, unhallow'd vapours shed
On that false Fugitive's inglorious head.
' Whence, and what art thou, GRATTAN? has the shock,
And terror low'ring o'er the sable rock,
Hurl'd thee astounded with tumultuous fears,
From Ireland's mutter'd curse, from Ireland's tears?
For thee no vistos ope, no friendly glade,
No Muse invites thee to *my* sacred shade;
No airs of peace from heav'n thy presence greet;
Blasts from Avernus, in respondence meet,
Hoarse through the leafless branches howl around,
And birds of night return the obscener sound.'

Mr. Grattan is thus furiously *pursued* and assailed by the offended *Shade* through the rest of this long poem, of seventy six pages, the

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' * Mr. Pope generally spelt the word in this manner.'

' † The Right Hon. Welbore Ellis, Baron Mendip, the present possessor of Mr. Pope's villa at Twitnam.'

' † Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq. a distinguished veteran in literature and the polite arts. His poem entitled " *The Scribleriad*" is a work of great fancy, just composition, and poetical elegance; but above all, of mature judgment conspicuous throughout. It should be read as well for instruction, as amusement. The preface is entitled to much attention.'

' § George Hardinge, Esq. a man of genius and eloquence, M. P. one of the Welsh Judges. He is the present possessor of the villa called " *Ragman's Castle*" at Twitnam, by the banks of the Thames.'

copious

copious "biting"* *notes* included. Who, among those who knew and admired Mr. G. (and who that knew his abilities did not admire them?) when he rode, all glorious, in the meridian blaze of his popularity, could ever have thought of his experiencing so total a reverse of fame and reputation!

Art. 39. *An Interview between the Spirit of Pope and the Shade that assumed his name.* 8vo. 6*d*. Hatchard. 1799.

If we believe that the first Shade of Pope was an impostor, who, as is here contended, had not the smallest right to assume the name and character of that justly admired poet, what shall prevent people from disputing the claim of the *second* questionable spectre, who "revisits thus the glimpses of the moon"—"making night hideous."

This rival Shade (No. 2.) very severely attacks his precursor; and it is difficult to say which of these angry spirits is the bitterest devil†. Neither Mr. Grattan's name, nor the cause of Ireland, is introduced on this second occasion.

RELIGIOUS, *&c.*

Art. 40. *Christian Institutes:* being a Popular Illustration of the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments: with the Sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper. Designed for Families, Students, and others. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. Crown 8vo. 2*s*. Rivingtons, &c.

It may be the opinion of some, that, after Pearson's Exposition of the Creed, and Wheatly's admirable work on the common prayer, nothing farther could be written on these subjects which would be of any great advantage to mankind: but, although we are ready to allow these great men every merit which their warmest friends may ascribe to them, we think that it might be said that there are many sincere Christians who would wish to receive information on the chief articles of their faith; and who yet, from want of leisure, or perhaps of previous knowlege, might be ill qualified to consult the learned authors above-mentioned.—We cannot express our sentiments on this subject better than by transcribing the preface to the work before us:

'It has often appeared to the editor of these pages, that a tract of this kind,—easy, short, and on a level with ordinary perusal,—might be very serviceable in the present state of Christianity amongst us.—*Expositions*, indeed, and *Commentaries* upon the same subjects are not wanting: yet of these, some are much too learned for common use; others are too prolix; some are too expensive for the generality of purchasers; others are drawn up in the uninviting form of

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* Bishop Hall styled some of his satirical compositions "*biting satires.*"

† The new Shade pretends to have detected the old one, and has here exposed him as an *infernal;* and possibly it will be pretty generally agreed that they are—*par nobile fratrum.*

Query, were the *muses* or the *furies* concerned in this midnight disturbance of the peace of TWIT'NAM'S SACRED BOWERS?

Surely such licentious frisking, in a well ordered neighbourhood, ought to be the subject of some inquiry!

Dialogue, by *Question* and *Answer*: so that a convenience still seems to be looked for from a popular performance, suited to a greater variety of circumstances, situations, and purposes.

'With a view, in some measure, to answer this design, an attempt has here been made to bring into a short compass the most material points of doctrine in our *Creeds*, &c. &c. by the aid of such approved Authorities and Commentaries, as the Editor conceived might safely be relied on:—that from hence a proper insight may be obtained into the Principles of the Christian Belief and Practice: and that the reader may proceed with greater advantage afterwards, to works of fuller illustration, and to *Expositions* of a superior rank and character.'

Such is the object of the author, which he seems to have accomplished in a manner that entitles him to praise.—He preserves a tolerably just medium between the puritanical austerity of some writers, and the more dangerous lenity of others. We may therefore recommend him as a judicious and safe guide: his style also is easy and unaffected, and (which may be considered as of the first importance in a work of this sort) uncommonly clear and perspicuous. Ban.r

Art. 41. *The Friendly Call of Truth and Reason to a New Species of Dissenters.* By the Rev. Edward Barry, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Elmsly and Bremner.

When shall we cease to wonder at the singular fact that, though the Christian religion inculcates love and harmony with clearness and energy, there never was a religion of which the professors were so divided and sub-divided into sects and parties? One would suppose, from the mere external state of the Church, that their divine master had left them a pointed injunction to separate from each other whenever the slightest reason and pretext offered; and it should seem from Dr. Barry's account of *A New Species of Dissenters*, that there were some people at Reading, and elsewhere, who had a particular pleasure and satisfaction in acting on this maxim. No doubt, there are Dissenters whose religious sentiments are so much at variance with the doctrines of our established Church, that their separation from it may be conscientiously justified: but we think, with the writer of this *Friendly Call*, that the description of Dissenters which he addresses, (viz. those who object to neither the doctrines nor the Liturgy of the Church, but separate from it merely because the 17th Article of Predestination and Election ~~are~~ not more enforced from the pulpit,) are not justified in the schism which they have created. Clergymen who have been fond of discussing these topics have been guilty of the greatest extravagances; and their absurdities will be a proper warning to judicious preachers to avoid, as much as they can, those discussions in which they can "*find no end, in wandering mazes lost;*" and to confine themselves, for the most part at least, to those practical doctrines which come home to "men's business and bosoms." There are certainly some things in the Christian system which are hard to be understood: but about these we ought rather to *agree to differ*, than insist on harmony of sentiment.

At all events, separation from Christian communion is an evil attended with such serious consequences, that no man should allow

himself in it without the most calm and dispassionate self-examination. If the Reading New Dissenters cannot perfectly satisfy themselves in a court of conscience thus held, we advise them to listen to Dr. B.; who exhorts them 'to return to the venerable embraces of our well-organized church.'

Moo-y.

Art. 42. *Sermons on various Subjects*, by John Bidlake, B. A. Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, and Master of the Grammar-school, Plymouth. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 351. 6s. Boards. Murray and Co. 1799.

Little remains for us to say respecting these discourses, after we have referred the present set of sermons to an account already given * of the former volume. In the preface, we are informed that the first of them was preached in the behalf of the relations of the killed or wounded in the sea fights under Lord Nelson and Sir J. B. Warren; and that Mr. B. was afterward requested to print it: as has been the case with other discourses in the collection. It is added that 'they were all delivered before mixed congregations of various ranks; and that it has been the author's endeavour to make them as generally useful as he could. He has studiously avoided every thing of a controversial nature, thinking the pulpit ill adapted for disputation, and esteeming life sufficiently discordant without that most anomalous and disgusting fury, *religious animosity*;—he therefore only laboured to inculcate the necessity of practical piety, and to enforce the indispensable duties of morality on the animating and steady principle of rational faith.'

The subjects of the sermons in this volume are—Providence; Hopes of Religion; Future Judgment; Corrupt Conversation; the Unjust Steward; the Widow's Son; Christmas Day; Drunkenness; History of Lazarus, *two sermons*; Good Works; Creation; a good Conscience; Perseverance; Character of Peter; Shortness of Human Expectations; Power of Religion.

Hearers and readers differ considerably in their taste and judgment respecting pulpit-oratory: but we apprehend that these discourses may be perused by Christians of any denomination with improvement. We have only to add that the style is generally correct and easy: but the phrase, (p. 32.) *interpredication of Christ*, may prove to some rather unintelligible.

Hi.

Art. 43. *A Letter to Mrs. Hannah More* on some part of her late publication, entitled "Strictures on Female Education." To which is subjoined, A Discourse on Genesis, xv. 6. preached at Christ's Church, Bath. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B. Minister of Christ's Church, Bath. 8vo. pp. 91. 2s. Hatchard.

Mrs. More has said that, "it is observable that the earlier parts of most of the Epistles abound in the doctrines of Christianity, while the latter chapters, which wind up the subject, exhibit all the duties which grow out of them as the *natural* and *necessary* productions of such a root;—that those who would make Christianity consist of doctrines only, dwell, for instance, on the first eleven chapters of the Epistle to the Romans, as containing *exclusively* the sum and substance of the

* M. R. for March 1795, vol. xviii. N. S. p. 173.

Gospel;

Gospel: while mere moralists, who wish to strip Christianity of her lofty and appropriate attributes, delight to dwell on the twelfth chapter, which is a table of duties as *exclusively* as if the preceding chapters made no part of scripture."

To this passage, Mrs. More owes the present address from Mr. Daubeny; who, though he agrees with that lady on the general subject of Christianity, objects to the distinction made by her between the first eleven chapters of the Epistle to the Romans and the twelfth, as not correct. He observes that 'the sixth chapter, one of the eleven supposed to contain *exclusively* the doctrinal part of the gospel, speaks so decidedly in favour of Christian practice, as a necessary appendage to Christian profession, that it must, at least, claim an exemption from that particular plan, by which you describe the apostolic instruction, as being generally distinguished.' This, no doubt, the lady will admit, and will observe that she had no thought of being taken in the very rigid sense which is put on her language by her reverend critic; some parts of whose strictures do not properly apply to her object in the use of the above quoted passage: since she is not debating the question whether the mere moralist can or cannot perform the duties inculcated in the twelfth chapter, but only pointing out the reason why those who consider Christianity as a mere system of duty prefer that chapter to the preceding eleven.

Perhaps the propriety of using the words *natural* and *necessary*, in the former part of the quotation, may be worth Mrs. M.'s consideration; for, as Mr. D. very judiciously observes,

'The connection between Christian practice and the motives to it is certainly *in one sense* inseparable. Nevertheless the distinction between Christian doctrines considered as the necessary ground-work for Christian duties; because Christian practice can stand on no other foundation; and between Christian duties, considered as the necessary consequence of Christian doctrine; appears to me to be a distinction of the simplest kind: and whenever, for want of such a distinction having been clearly made, the Christian is encouraged to live in an indolent profession of Christianity; the gross doctrine of Faith without works, and the more plausible one of Faith, considered as *necessarily* productive of them, will be found to differ only in the direct and indirect promotion of the same fatal effects.' P. 46.

This is more clearly explained in the following passage:

'Faith in Christ will certainly be productive of the fruits of Christianity, *when the professor has not been wanting to himself in the diligent and faithful use of the means that have been instituted for that purpose.* But it is no uncommon thing for ignorant Christians to expect the fruits of Divine Grace, without making use of the means of it; and this is downright enthusiasm.'

The Discourse subjoined to this letter, entitled "The Faith of Abraham a Pattern for Christian Imitation," was written to resist this enthusiasm; which, the author fears, (and with reason, we believe,) is creeping among the lower orders. Here, by a distinct review of the history, he shews that Abraham's faith was not speculative, but practical; and that the Christian professor must judge of his faith by his practice:—but we have no room for farther extract.

Art. Moo

Art. 44. *An Apology for the Christian Sabbath:* in which the Arguments for it are stated, the Objections against it answered, and the proper manner of spending it enforced. Intended as a Defence of "A Practical View, &c. by W. Wilberforce, Esq." and by Permission inscribed to him. Small 8vo. pp. 74. 1s. 6d. Conder, &c. 1799.

The author of this little tract is Mr. S. Palmer of Hackney; who, though he has not given his name in the title-page, has subscribed it to the Dedication. To this gentleman's piety and respectability of character, we are happy on every occasion to bear testimony: but we cannot adduce the work before us as a proof that he always argues with strength and effect. The utility and moral advantages of a Sabbath we chearfully admit; and we would ever encourage so beneficial an institution: but this is a distinct thing from the question of its being a Divine Institution, of perpetual and universal obligation. Its appointment under the Jewish Theocracy is express. It made an indisputable part of their ceremonial law: but is there any clear evidence that this ordinance, any more than their laws and regulations respecting sacrifices, was designed to be obligatory on others? Mr. Palmer says that 'he does not mean to intimate that there is under the gospel any such holiness of *times* as there was under the law;' yet he undertakes to prove that the very same circumstance prevails under the gospel as under the law, viz. the appointment of one day in seven to be observed as *peculiarly* devoted to religion.

Because the 4th Commandment contains the clause *the stranger that is within thy gates*, Mr. P. would infer that it is obligatory on mankind at large: but this inference will not hold; since this part of the command cannot be supposed to contain a prohibition from labour to Heathens on the seventh day, but only a restriction on the Jews from employing even them on that day. The restrictive clause "*within thy gates*" is demonstrative of the non-universality of the command, and proves that it did not reach the *stranger without*.

Mr. P.'s comment on our Saviour's maxim, "*The sabbath was made for man, and not man for the sabbath,*" is not more happy; 'the words (he says) naturally convey the idea that it was appointed not for the Jews only, but for all mankind in general:' might he not as well have told us that they convey an idea of the Millenium? All that this general doctrine inculcates is, that the observance of a sabbath ought to be made beneficial, and not injurious to man; it speaks nothing of a sabbath being generally obligatory on mankind, nor on the subjects of the dispensation which was to succeed Judaism. The question, in order to be satisfactorily decided, requires fuller evidence: but where is this evidence to be found? Mr. P. farther quotes, "the Son of Man is LORD of the Sabbath," to prove that it was to continue under Christ's *Lordship* or jurisdiction; though the words were uttered by Christ himself for no such purpose, but only to justify a conduct which the Jews deemed a violation of that Sabbath. Christ here only asserts his right to observe it, or not, as he should think proper.

Can it be said that there is any express injunction, or any thing amounting to an injunction, in the Christian scriptures, relative to the observance of a sabbath? Nothing of the kind has been produced.

Had the first Christians considered the 4th commandment as religiously obligatory on them, it must have been thought to be so in all its parts; and they would not have deemed themselves at liberty to have altered the sabbath from the seventh to the first day of the week, without a specific command or warrant; which does not appear to have been given.

Mr. P. says, however, 'we have what is nearly equivalent to a command;—we have the practice of the first Christians:' but this does not create a solemn obligation; it only proves their views of the propriety and expediency of such a practice.

Mr. Palmer's answers to other objections are equally unsatisfactory.

In his chapter on the manner in which the Sabbath ought to be kept, there are some good hints, to which all pious Christians will chearfully attend: but he is rather too precise and dictatorial. He allows only 'a walk in a garden, or *retired* place, on a Sunday;' this makes the rigour of the institution more severe *under grace* than *under the law*, for the Jews had a sabbath day's journey, and our Saviour's example justifies a walk in the common fields.

On this subject, we think it best not to descend to minute directions*. If Mr. P.'s argument, drawn from the 4th commandment, have any foundation, it will, it must, carry him farther than he intends; if it be defective, the whole must rest on the general ground of expediency and utility, on the laws of our country and the appointment of the Church.

Moor

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 45. *Letters written from various parts of the Continent*, between the years 1785 and 1794: containing a variety of Anecdotes relative to the present State of Literature in Germany, and to celebrated German Literati. With an Appendix. In which are included Three Letters of Gray's, never before published in this country. Translated from the German of Frederick Matthisson, by Anne Plumptre, Translator of several of Kotzebue's plays. 8vo. pp. 544. 8s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1799.

Having noticed the original of this work in our Appendix to vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 522. it remains that we should say a few words respecting the translation. On the whole, it does not seem to be ill executed; and the remarks which Miss Plumptre has annexed are in general pertinent, though they ought to have been more numerous; especially in letters xi. xxv. xxix. &c. She observes, p. 301. 'Literature, which for a long series of years was greatly neglected in Germany, has now become a rage, and every body turns author.' We never understood that, since the revival of letters, literature had at any time been neglected in that country: but it is well known that the Germans have not, till within these fifty or eighty years, paid much attention to their *language*, nor to *German* literature. Baron

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* Who can help smiling at having it intimated to them by this writer, that 'the going a greater distance than is necessary, even to public worship,' is a species of sabbath-breaking which good Christians should avoid?

Riesbeck,

Riesbeck, whose travels have been translated into English by Maty, was certainly an intelligent man: but Miss Plumptre ought not to believe him implicitly when he speaks of *Göthe*, whom he treats rather illiberally. We might adduce some other inaccuracies in the text, as well as the notes: but they are not of moment.

We select the following passages as specimens of Miss Plumptre's translation:

'The quantity of bones in the charnel-house at Murten has, from various causes, been for some years visibly diminishing. In the first place, almost every traveller who visits them takes some away as a *souvenir*; but what consumes them much more rapidly is, that on account of their extraordinary whiteness they are now much employed in turnery ware, particularly in making handles for knives. The post-boys of Geneva, to whom credit is due for discovering this new branch of trade, carry them away in large quantities, in order to make money of them in their native town: Bonstetten assured me, that ten years ago this heap of bones was at least some feet higher. In antient times, it was a frequent practice among the inhabitants of Burgundy to come hither, for the purpose of carrying away as many as possible of these remains of their unhappy countrymen, that they might transport them over the borders and bury them in their native soil. But more curious was the fate of two skulls which the celebrated naturalist Hebenstreit took with him on his journey to Africa: before Tunis, where a religious bigotry prohibits the keeping of any human remains, they were discovered by the people who searched his chest, and thrown into the sea.'—

'From the Monastery of the Grand Saint-Bernard.

'As the ground for a considerable extent round the monastery is solid rock, the dead are collected together in a chapel, lying on its eastern side, which is made to admit a thorough draught of air, by openings in the walls guarded by large iron bars, as in the charnel-house at Murten. The sight of so many unfortunate persons, probably collected from various parts of the world, yet howsoever remote from each other in life, brought hither by an unfortunate similarity of fate to rest together in death, affected my inmost soul. They are all covered with palls; and as in this frozen region no exanimate body moulders, but only gradually shrivels and dries away, so the features in the face remain undisfigured for a considerable length of time, and some have even been recognized by friends and relations after having lain here for two or three years. The bodies are not disposed one over the other, but are all placed upright, and each fresh corpse leans his head on the breast of the former: this disposition has something familiar in it, and gives them the semblance of being united only in a general slumber. Four rows of these slumberers already rest here, from the faces and hands of many of whom the palls have slipped off and left them uncovered; these have all a perfect mummy-like appearance.'

According to our judgment, Miss Plumptre has not been happy in her translation of the *stanzas on the lake of Geneva*. This little ~~piece~~ composition is in the original one of the most sublime and beautiful pieces of poetry

poetry that the Germans possess; in English, it is spiritless, and even below mediocrity. To translate poetry must ever be an excessively arduous and often an ungrateful task: but Mickle's Lusiad, Roscoe's Nurse, Sotheby's Oberon, and a few other instances, prove that it is possible to produce copies which equal and even surpass their originals.

Hull.

Art. 46. *Elements of Elocution:* in which the Principles of Reading and Speaking are investigated; and such Pauses, Emphasis, and Inflexions of Voice, as are suitable to every variety of Sentence, are distinctly pointed out and explained; with Directions for strengthening and modulating the Voice, so as to render it varied, forcible, and harmonious. To which is added, a complete System of the Passions, showing how they affect the Countenance, Tone of Voice, and Gesture of the Body, exemplified by a copious Selection of the most striking Passages of Shakespeare. The whole illustrated by Copper-plates, explaining the Nature of Accent, Emphasis, Inflection, and Cadence. The Second Edition, with Alterations and Additions. By John Walker, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. 8vo. pp. 400. No Price marked. Robinsons, &c. 1799.

In our Reviews for August and September 1781, vol. lxv. we gave an account of the first edition of this work, and expressed our approbation of the ability and ingenuity of the author. We also made such copious extracts, that it is unnecessary for us to enlarge on the present edition: but the following observations, respecting the pause at the end of every line in blank verse, appear to be sensible and judicious; and, as the subject is curious, they may be gratifying to some of our readers.

'Rule V. At the end of every line in poetry must be a pause proportioned to the intimate or remote connection subsisting between the two lines.

'Mr. Sheridan, in his Art of Reading, has insisted largely on the necessity of making a pause at the end of every line in poetry, whether the sense requires it or not, which he says has hitherto escaped the observation of all writers on the subject; and this, he observes, is so necessary, that without it we change the verse into prose. It is with diffidence I dissent from such an authority, especially as I have heard it approved by persons of great judgment and taste *. I must own, however, that the necessity of this pause, where the sense does not require it, is not so evident to me as to remove every doubt about it; for, in the first place, if the author has so united the preceding and following lines in verse, as to make them real prose, why is a reader to do that which his author has neglected to do; and indeed

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'* I asked Dr. Lowth, Mr. Garrick, and Dr. Johnson, about the propriety of this pause, and they all agreed with Mr. Sheridan. Had I been less acquainted with the subject, and seen less of the fallibility of great names upon it, I should have yielded to this decision; but great names are nothing where the matter in question is open to experiment; and to this experiment I appeal.'

seems

seems to have forbidden by the very nature of the composition? In the next place, this slight and almost insensible pause of suspension does not seem to answer the end proposed by it; which is, that of making the ear sensible of the versification, or of the number of accentual impressions in every line. For this final pause is often so small, when compared with that which precedes or follows it in the body of the line, and this latter and larger pause is so often accompanied with an inflexion of voice which marks the formation of perfect sense, that the boundaries of the verse become almost, if not utterly imperceptible, and the composition, for a few lines, falls into an harmonious kind of prose. For it is evident, that it is not a small pause at the end of a line in verse, which makes it appear poetry to the ear, so much as that adjustment of the accented syllables which forms a regular return of stress, whether the line be long or short. Accordingly, we find, that those lines in blank verse, which have a long pause in the middle, from a conclusion of the sense, and a very short one at the end, from the sense continuing, are, in spite of all our address in reading, very prosaical. This prosaic air in these lines may have a very good effect in point of expression and variety, but if too frequently repeated, will undoubtedly render the verse almost imperceptible; for, as was before observed, the ear will measure the lines by the greatest pauses, and if these fall within, and not at the end of the line, the versification will seem to be composed of unequal lines, and will want that measure which the ear always expects in verse, and never dispenses with, but when sense, variety, or expression is promoted by it.—EXAMPLE.

'Deeds of eternal fame
Were done, but infinite; for wide was spread
That war, and various; sometimes on firm ground
A standing fight; then soaring on main wing,
Tormented all the air; all air seem'd then
Conflicting fire: long time in even scale
The battle hung'—— *Milton.*

'The pauses at the end of these lines are so small when compared wieh those in the body of the lines, that an appeal may be made to every ear for the truth of what has been just observed. This disproportion in the pauses cannot, however, be said to reduce the composition to prose; nay, even if we were to use no pauses at all at the end of the lines, they would not, on this account, entirely lose their poetic character; for, at worst, they might be called numerous or harmonious prose; and that the greatest part of blank verse is neither more nor less than this, it would not be difficult to prove.'

Art. 47. *Impartial Strictures on the Poem called "Pursuits of Literature:"* and particularly a Vindication of the Romance of "The Monk." 8vo. 3s. Bell, Oxford-street.

While this author professes that his design is 'merely to give some general strictures on the style and manner of the *Pursuits*, with observations on a few of the most striking passages, &c.' it seems to us not improbable that his principal object was the defence of

of Mr. Lewis's *Novel* above-mentioned: a work which, with all its allowed *Genius*, has been justly censured for its impurity.

We have no idea who may be the author of these *Strictures*. He is undoubtedly a writer of good ability: but we are of opinion that he has failed in his attempts to defend the work of Mr. Lewis, against the vigorous attacks which have been made on it.

With respect to the other purposes of these strictures, viz. to shew that the avowed objects of the *Pursuits* 'are completely at variance with each other; as well as to expose a few instances of the illiberal abuse, the personal invective, and the gross misrepresentation, &c.' in following the critic through this long and varied investigation, we meet with frequent occasions of applauding his candid and moderate tone of investigation, and his readiness to do justice to the *Pursuer*, wherever his intentions appear to be laudable. He does not seem to be, in any instance, under the smallest influence of personal pique or resentment; and therefore, whatever may be thought of the weight of his strictures in some points, he fairly claims to be ranked among the foremost of ingenuous controvertists.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We should be glad to assist a person in the circumstances in which B— C— of Plymouth Dock represents himself, but we really have not leisure to wander so far out of the path of our duty.

The packet from J. D. of Charleston, South Carolina, the postage of which is about six times the price of the inclosure, can be of no use to us.

The work mentioned by R. A. Hoxton Square, never came into our hands; and we wish now to be excused from noticing it. The world is greatly overstocked with such publications, and we are weary of examining them.

Where will the writer, who signs *Verbum*, find good authority for the adverb *earlily*?

R. B. points out a mistake in the last Review, p. 404. copied from Mr. Middleton's Survey of Middlesex, where the total population should be 3,584,600, instead of 3,674,600.—We fear that unavoidable haste will not allow us to remedy the other complaint of R. B.

We thank Jeremy Sea; whose corrections would have been still more acceptable, had they arrived before our table of *Errata* in the last volume had been printed: see the *Appendix*.

*** In the Review for December, p. 363. l. 12. for 'of Euxine,' r. *of the Euxine*.—P. 393. l. 28. for 'Gay,' r. *Gray*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXX. of the Monthly Review is published with this Number.

P. 104. art. 46. for '17 articles,' r. 14 articles'
next line, for 'are', r. is